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ABSTRACT

This handbook is a course of study to teach teachers at all grade levels to understand, implement, and teach to their students the causal approach to human behavior. Although the major portion of the handbook is based on the concepts of Ralph H. Ojemman's causal approach to behavior, and the curricular materials are presented to explain this approach, it is contrasted with and supplemented by the approaches of Berman, Raths, Torrance, and others. Provided are thirteen guide units designed to help teachers: 1) recognize the need for promoting mental health in the classroom; 2) understand the causes and effects of behavior; 3) change behavior in the classroom; 4) teach students the causal approach to behavior in different curriculum areas; 5) develop curricular materials for the classroom that will promote mental health; 6) promote individualization and self-directed in learning; 7) understand group dynamics and inter-group relationships. Included in each unit are objectives, purpose statements, group activities, and suggested readings for the exercises, reading assignments and discussions. (Author/RM)

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PROMOTING MENTAL HEALTH IN THE CLASSROOM

a handbook for teachers

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PROMOTING MENTAL HEALTH IN THE CLASSROOM

a handbook for teachers

KAREN ROHNE PRITCHETT TODD, PH.D.
Consultant, Adjunct Professor
New York University

NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF MENTAL HEALTH
CENTER FOR STUDIES OF CHILD AND FAMILY MENTAL HEALTH
5600 Fishers Lane
Rockville, Maryland 20852

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FOREWORD

The mental health of children is the number one priority of the National Institute of Mental Health. The appropriate implementation of this priority must deal with the question: *How* can we enhance the mental health of America's children?

Probably nowhere can a preventive approach in child mental health be better implemented than through the *schools* of this country. And, it is clear that the key person relating to children within the school is the *teacher*. A teacher can be punitive and arbitrarily judgmental in dealing with the behavior of pupils, and thus can have a deleterious effect on the mental health of children. Or a teacher can take into account the underlying factors which produce behavior, and thus help children learn to choose methods of meeting their needs which will have positive consequences for both themselves and others.

For well over 30 years, psychologist Ralph H. Ojemann and his staff have been helping teachers at all grade levels both to apply and to teach to their pupils a causal or understanding approach to human behavior. According to this approach, both teachers and pupils learn, through their relationships with one another, how to respon to behavior through understanding why a person behaves as he does. A complete curriculum program for teaching an understanding of human behavior, from preschool through senior high school, has been developed and researched in a number of classrooms.

Promoting Mental Health in the Classroom by Dr. Karen Todd is based in large part on the concepts of the causal approach. This handbook, together with related films and discussion guides, has been developed to help teachers at all grade levels learn to appreciate, implement, and teach to their pupils the causal or understanding approach to human behavior. When this approach is modeled by teachers and taught to pupils in an organized and consistent way, research evidence tells us that positive attitudinal and behavioral changes do occur in both personal and social relationships within the school. This tool for teachers represents one significant step forward in the Institute's effort to find ways to improve the mental health of our children.

Bertram S. Brown, *Director*
National Institute of Mental Health

PREFACE

This handbook presents a model for looking at behavior. It may be helpful to both elementary and secondary teachers. It may also be helpful to parents and paraprofessionals and other members of the school community. This guide was derived largely from the work of Dr. Ralph H. Ojemann, Director of the Psychology Department, of the Educational Research Council of America, Rockefeller Building, Cleveland, Ohio 44113.

The units are designed to be used by a person with concern and understanding about the effects of the school on the mental health of its participants. This person may be found in a community health center, in a medical school, in a university department of education and/or behavioral studies, in private practice, in the administrative office, or in a well-functioning classroom. Hopefully, the materials will help the leader to be a learner among the learners as well as a teacher of teachers.

The guide units are intended to promote the development of ideas, attitudes, and skills which produce change in the behavior of the participants toward children. The behavior of the leader should serve as a demonstration of the concepts to be learned. Actions speak louder than words and teachers tend to teach as they have been taught. Thus it is ineffectual to *lecture* about small group activities rather than to participate in a group activity. One cannot stress the importance of accepting persons as individuals if at the same time one treats the participants as inferiors.

A child's feelings about himself and his ultimate contribution or cost to society are greatly influenced by the ideas, attitudes, and skills he learns in school. Particularly important is that knowledge he acquires from viewing himself and interacting with other people. The teacher is in a critical position for effecting the degree to which that knowledge is positive or negative.

Critics are currently emphasizing that schools are damaging self-concepts and social skills of children. Also, concurrent with the condemnation of the schools, there is a healthy development toward the application of social and psychological research for effective learning.

Teachers have expressed, along with the lay public, their own concerns and unhappiness with their inabilities to promote self-understanding and positive self-acceptance. However, the school patrons and the teachers have shown a willingness to open the schools in an effort to find new ways of understanding the dynamic process of learning. Those who have been discouraged or unsatisfied use defensive behaviors, but even they are seeking help. Too few have questioned the basic premises underlying the behaviors, expectations, and activities of their classrooms. Even those who are outwardly seeking change are generally unaware of the rigidity of these basic assumptions. Some of these traditional tenets have been tested through research and found invalid. Other time-honored premises are incongruent with beliefs and values the teacher holds. Restructuring these assumptions with other value systems requires self-exploration. Continual

monitoring is required since the same assumptions about behavior that influence teaching also permeate the teacher's total life.

The participants may be encouraged to work through the units at their own pace, choosing those units best suited to their needs. The purpose statements at the beginning of each unit are designed to help the individual make choices about the relevance of that unit. The leader may want to suggest minimum levels of participation of each unit so that group activities can take place. The group activities are important for clarifying concepts and values, for effecting behavior and attitudinal changes, and for skill development of the group process. It is important to provide for continual communication between the leader and the participants and among the group members themselves. In this way, the learning strategies may be suited to the needs of the members and they should be free to ask for and receive support at times when they find coping with affective concepts difficult.

Karen Rohne Pritchett Todd

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K.R.P.T.

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PART I

INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM AND PREPARATION FOR THE COURSE OF STUDY

The initial two units of this course of study are designed to prepare the teacher for subsequent study by asking him/her to: a) examine some of the present school practices which seem to be detrimental to the child's social and emotional growth; b) define some of the characteristics of mental health and factors which facilitate its development; c) explore some of the attitudes, ideas, and values which influence teaching behavior, and d) build a sense of belonging within the seminar group.

In this way it is hoped that each teacher will be more sensitive to the need for promoting mental health in the classroom and that a feeling of trust and concern will be established within the seminar group. This type of climate is usually necessary if teachers are going to take risks and attempt to change their behaviors.

Unit 1

BUILDING A SEMINAR GROUP AND DEVELOPING SELF-AWARENESS

OBJECTIVES

When you finish this unit you should be able to:

1. Express the feelings and experiences you have as a part of group interaction.
2. Build communication networks in order to function as an effective group member.
3. Understand some of the behaviors which facilitate or block communication within the group.
4. Recognize some nonverbal communication.
5. Identify some of your needs and strengths.
6. Be aware of the things you value.

In this course of study, you will be asked to examine closely your teaching behaviors and their effect on children. Your teaching is supported by ideas and attitudes you have developed over the years, some of which you may not be aware. This unit contains experiences to help you become more aware of your feelings and ideas.

If you are to really get at your value systems, root out and examine some of the attitudes that influence your behavior, you will need a climate within your seminar which gives you a sense of trust, support, and caring.

Ideas about appropriate behavior for a teacher, for a woman or a man, for a citizen of your community, for a person of your social status, may influence your effectiveness in relating to others. If these ideas can be brought into consciousness, you can make choices about your behavior and work on those aspects that no longer work well for you.

The experiences in this unit are designed to help you gain self-awareness in the areas of your relationships with other people as well as yourself. You will be encouraged to examine your skill in communicating with others on both a verbal and a nonverbal level.

The group leader should have some preliminary knowledge of the group. A leader who has not had much group experience may not be aware that neophyte group members might be frightened or intimidated by some activities which have been used as getting-acquainted techniques. In introducing some activities, the group members may be asked to consider three aspects of their participation in the exercises:

1. Personal affect or self:
   - How are *you* feeling?
   - What scares you?
   - What makes you comfortable or uncomfortable?
2. The other person:
   - How can you help others to express how they feel?
   - How can you encourage direct communication?
3. The leader:
   - As a leader or teacher how do you think children would feel about the exercise?
   - What does the exercise do to help you change your thinking about students?
   - What have you learned about yourself and other group members which might influence relationships with children?

According to Kraus (1972):

> Sometimes stereotyped behavior or the inability to think creatively at a group meeting involves resistance or a real defense against a change of attitudes, thinking, or behavior patterns. Thus personality factors may enter one's ability to learn from and utilize new situations.
>
> Personality rigidity is one detriment to healthy group interaction. When we consider rigidity, we must differentiate between primary rigidity which occurs when one finds it impossible to turn attention from the task at hand and secondary rigidity which only comes to the foreground when the individual is confronted with information or a task with which he cannot cope. Research has shown that persons who are high in anxiety become particularly rigid in an effort to cope with ambiguous situations. In the realization that there is, perhaps, more than one correct answer, they tend to make up their minds quicker and stick to the answer—because for the authoritarian or anxious person, to change his mind implies weakness and vascillation . . . Because speech is a relatively late development in *homo sapiens*, it must be realized that actions may be a more primitive way of responding—and more truthful. Man has been acting out his feelings for eons—even without really consciously believing that actions usually speak much, much louder than words.
>
> Three methods have been used successfully to start conferences. . . . When these methods are used, and again it is stressed that the leader must be experienced and schooled in this technique—a little bit of learning can be be a dangerous thing—there are two requirements: (1) the participant must be mature enough to be ready to accept what he learns about his attitudes toward the other group members or the issue to be discussed and (2) if necessary, he will have the ability to follow up the new insight by correcting or changing his behavior and if he cannot, seek professional help, or have the ability to really accept himself as he is. It is anxiety provoking to see oneself in a light that may not please one and then to sit still and mentally say, "What do I do now?"
>
> The first method used is to have the group listen to the leader describing the theory that attitudes, emotions, and behavior can be visualized, not as static or rigid, but as a place on a continuum (or a long horizontal line) where the person can move up or down as he changes his thinking. For example, the leader asks the members to line themselves up (as in a congo line) to show where they stand on a given issue—from liberal to conservative. Another leading question is to ask them how much action they want in this type of warm-up. They form a line from active to passive.
>
> In one group, the majority of members were rather apprehensive; and they all grouped at the midpoint. When queried, they replied they were going to wait and see what was going to happen. When they saw everyone else was apprehensive too and would not commit themselves, the ice was immediately broken. The leader knew he had to move slowly with this group.
>
> In another group, men and women brought their spouses. It was very interesting to watch when one partner would start to place himself in a different direction from his spouse—and then to observe how the spouse would try to gently maneuver the other into standing where they did so they would present a unified front. Some partners, however, were content to let the other person stand in a different position from their own and to stay there. When the individuals in this group realized how they had displayed their inner attitudes toward their marriage, some of which they really were unaware, the reactions varied from laughter to annoyance but one theme was common—they were glad others shared their unspoken attitudes!
>
> In still another group, members tended to congregate near the liberal end. When asked why, they replied that they wanted to learn all they could about this—and "to be where the action was." One member, five members down the line from the first on the liberal side, stated, "I would have been Number One but I just seemed to get pushed down this far so I stayed." Later, he realized that he had let people manipulate him in other situations and he was nonplused because he thought of himself as an aggressive person. Seeing these inner attitudes and knowing participants are glad that they share these feelings with the others helps the leader determine how fast to go and the type of group he is dealing with.

The second method is one of introduction. If members do not know each other and there are fifteen or more participants, this has proven a real warm-up. Everyone is instructed to stand and introduce himself to the person closest to him and learn something about him. At the sound of a bell or whistle (about every 30 to 45 seconds) they must move on to another person, introduce themselves and learn something about the second person. This is repeated six or eight times. Suddenly the leader will notice the wide variation in the way that people handle space between themselves and others. There will be some spontaneous groups with lots of talk and other cliques of two or three. Sometimes soft music in the background, and even low lighting, adds to the effectiveness.

At the end, when everyone has again taken his seat, the leader may choose two or three people who exemplify different kinds of group interaction to hear their reaction. One may say, "I didn't have a chance to move very far but I met two or three people." Others will have utilized space and crossed the entire room. Others, who appear quiet, will apparently be very extroverted in drawing out individuals from every section of the room. Attitudes of nervousness, shyness, pleasure, curiosity, defensiveness, flirting, appear from behind the facade. Then, the conference is ready to really begin.

This method is superior to the conventional one where each member at a round table tells his name and something about himself. The participants are so busy getting ready for their own speech they can't learn about the others who are speaking.

The last method to be discussed is one in which members form circles (either sitting or standing) of about six.

Participants number off. Each person who has an even number is in one group. Each person who has an odd number is in the other. Here again, low lights and soft music make a nice background. This is because music relaxes them, and they speak more freely with dimmer lighting. Each member in the group simply tells his first name and something about himself to the others. The next time, they give their first name again and answer a question such as, "What do you want to gain from this conference?" One can feel the intensity and rapport develop even though the leader takes a background seat. After about twenty minutes, when the lights go up again, people blink and smile at each other and the group cohesiveness is very apparent.

There are many other extremely interesting techniques that elicit true feelings and which are utilized in family, marital, classroom, work and interpersonal situations. The amazing thing is that as soon as one person is really honest, it seems to start a chain reaction. It is as though the curtain or facade drops. One realizes members really wanted "to come through" before but needed to be shown how.

The quality of interaction of any conference depends on the individual members; but if begun with one of the methods discussed above, members may start the conference and end the conference relating to the others in a more meaningful way so that through an attempt at honest communication, there is a true meeting of the minds.

EXERCISES

A. *Introduction*
Turn to the person on your left and tell him something about yourself that you ordinarily do not reveal on first meetings. (Example: your birthplace, age, favorite foods or books.)

B. *Group Identity*
Form a group of four or five (number depending upon size of total group). Choose a recorder. List as many points of *similarity* you can find among your members. (Example: number of children, travel, likes, and dislikes.) At the end of 10 minutes stop and have recorders read lists to total group.

C. *Pair-off*
Find a person you do not presently know or do not know well. Go over to him and tell him something about yourself and how you *feel* right now.

D. *Blind Walk*
Taking turns, show your partner the room *without using words*. Your partner will keep his eyes closed and allow you to lead him around and experience his sur-

roundings. When he seems to be comfortable and when you are ready, trade places. He will then lead you with your eyes closed. When you finish, talk about what happened, how you felt, what you learned about each other, what you now know about the room, what helped you trust your partner, what made you uneasy, etc. Remember—do not talk until you *both* have been led. (If there is a great deal of giggling or resistance to touching each other, you may need to discuss what they are feeling and why they are so tense. You may wish to demonstrate a firmer hold and indicate its advantages in communicating directions, etc.)

These questions are suggested for a discussion after the exercises:

1. What has happened so far?
2. How do you feel now, versus when you entered the room today?
3. What produced the change?
4. How do you feel about being asked to communicate without words?
5. What did you learn about yourself, your attitudes, and ideas?
6. Children, especialy young ones, depend on the nonverbal channels of communication more than on the verbal. What are some of the messages you may be communicating to children on a nonverbal basis?
7. How do you feel about being touched? What in your background might influence these feelings? Do you think that your feelings are the same as those of people from other ethnic backgrounds? In what ways might you differ?

BUILDING SELF-AWARENESS

After considering group consciousness, this unit moves into self-awareness concepts. However, the following techniques are presented with the thought of continuing group development while building self-awareness.

Leader: Here are some incomplete statements. Time yourself so that you spend no more than 15 minutes on each *set* of sentences. Be sure that each group member gets a chance to respond to each stem before going on to the next. Try to think through how you *really* feel about each idea and then risk sharing your true feelings with your group. Guard against generalizing with such statements as "I think most people feel this way." Go ahead and say how *you* feel. Say such things as "I feel . . . ," "In my experience . . ." Avoid detailed descriptions. Also avoid double messages (saying one thing verbally, another thing nonverbally). Help each other by asking for clarification if you do not understand and by encouraging each group member to participate fully. (The leader may wish to circulate to observe the communication patterns, the interaction, and content of group discussions.)

Sentence Stems for Building Self-Awareness

(Duplicate this or similar material for group use.)

The following sentence stems[1] are to be discussed in your group. Do not write responses. Encourage each member of your group to participate in the discussion.

Set A.

1. When I enter a new group, I feel . . .
2. When people first meet me, they . . .
3. When someone does all the talking, I . . .
4. I expect a leader to . . .

Set B.

1. In a group, I am most afraid of . . .
2. I am hurt most easily when . . .
3. I feel left out of a group when . . .
4. I trust those who . . .

Set C.

1. I feel closest to others when . . .
2. I feel loved most when . . .
3. My greatest strength is . . .
4. I am . . .

1. Originally developed by Joe Bechard and Harold Davis for use in inservice training at the Educational Research Council of America, 1967.

When all the groups have finished the stems, the total group may share some of the ideas they considered important. Major ideas and attitudes that are shared may be discussed in the total group, usually without indicating the person who made the statement. Discussion of questions such as the following may be included. Some of the questions may be asked very quickly so that thinking is stimulated but responses not required.

1. Did everyone in your group participate? What patterns of communication did you observe?
2. What did you say that you expect of a leader? What patterns of leadership emerged in your group? How might you function in a "leaderless" group?
3. Which items did you find most difficult to complete? Why do you think this was true?
4. Did you build a feeling of trust in your group? Did you feel your contributions were heard by others? Did you really listen to what others said?
5. Did you feel a sense of risk in any of your responses? Which ones? Share with each other those items on which you felt you were taking the greatest risk. Find out whether this feeling was communicated to the group.
6. To what degree was your response to "I am . . ." an indication of roles or jobs, rather than a description of basic personal characteristics?

VALUE CLARIFICATION

This experience is designed to test value positions and uncover some sources of conflict between values and behavior or among values. The activities are based on the suggestions of Raths, Harmin, and Simon in *Values in Teaching* and of Simon and Harmin at an action laboratory at the convention of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development in 1970.

Exploration of Values

Choose a value list which suits your group or create a list of 16 statements about situations found in education. Reproduce and distribute the "Grid for Ranking of Value Statements" which follows:

Leader: I will read 16 descriptions of people or situations you may have observed before. Decide how you feel about the description and the *strength* of your feelings. Using the *grid*, indicate the strength of your feelings by placing the key word of the description in one of the cells of the grid. The placement will indicate only the strength of your attitude, not whether your feelings are positive or negative. It is important that you write in the key word *before* the next description is read, rather than withholding judgment until you have heard several items. You may need to erase frequently and reorder the descriptions, but that is expected. When we finish, you should have key words written in each of the 16 cells, and their rank order should indicate the relative strength of your attitudes toward each of the 16 descriptions.

When you have finished the exercise and are satisfied with your ranking, go back and put "c" by those key words that were about classes, put "b" for boys, and "g" for girls. (If appropriate to the set of descriptions used.) Do you detect any pattern? Which types of description tend to arouse the strongest feelings in you? the least strong?

Discuss the four items that arouse your strongest feelings with your group of colleagues. Discuss the reasons for your ranking, but do not try to convince each other or to imply that someone else's choices are not valid. Simply share the opinions you have.

Now, suppose that your colleagues or the parents of your students have attitudes that are very different from yours. Suppose your strongest attitudes were their least strong, for example. Discuss in your group what the effects of these differences might be.

Examine the four strongest concerns and ask such questions as:

1. Do you think you chose this reaction?

GRID FOR RANKING OF VALUE STATEMENTS

LEAST STRONG	MILD	STRONG	MOST STRONG
1 (weakest)	5	9	13
2	6	10	14
3	7	11	15
4	8	12	16 (strongest)

Did you choose it freely, or did it primarily come from someone else?

2. Did you choose from other alternatives?
3. Did you choose it after thoughtful consideration of the effects of each alternative?
4. Do you cherish the choice or are you happy about your reaction?
5. Are you willing to affirm your choice publicly?
6. Have you done something about your choice?
7. Have you done something about it repeatedly?

(The above questions were adapted from the suggestions of Raths, et al., and can be used to indicate whether the attitude is an action-oriented value.)

Values Clarification Statements

Consider each statement carefully and rank in terms of the strength of the feelings the situation usually produces in you (both positive or negative). The word that is *italicized* is the key word to be entered on the ranking grid. Make your choices on the assumption that the people described are about the age of people with whom you work. Here is a:

1. Class that is very *noisy;* children move

around a lot and are doing many different kinds of things.

2. Boy who comes to school with long, *shaggy* hair.
3. Class that tends to be *messy;* books and materials are handled carelessly and not always put away after use.
4. Girl who works compulsively and gets upset when she makes a mistake—*perfectionist.*
5. Class that is highly *competitive*—frequently they work hard to put each other down.
6. Boy who giggles and acts silly to get attention—the class *clown.*
7. Class that is very *controlled* and quiet—seldom spontaneous.
8. Girl who *daydreams*—does not know what is going on in class.
9. Class that tests out *limits*—tries to see how far they can go.
10. Boy who is very *hostile,* curses frequently and has a low tolerance for frustration.
11. Class that *resists* doing what is in the *curriculum* guide—wants the opportunity to do what they will do and when they will do it.
12. Girl who gossips a lot and openly makes *cutting,* petty remarks about peers that she does not like.
13. Class that has many *sexual* undercurrents—most of the energy seems to be focused on making an impression on someone of the opposite sex,
14. Boy who is very quiet and seldom participates—no one seems to like him and he is always *alone.*
15. Class that tries desperately to be *"in"*—follows fads, leaders, and trends blindly.
16. Girl who is extremely *bright,* but has difficulty in relating to other students.

Alternative Values Clarification Statements

Consider each statement carefully and rank in terms of the strength of the feelings the situation usually produces in you (both positive or negative). The word that is *italicized* is the key word to be entered on the ranking grid. Make your choices on the assumption that the children described are about the age of those with whom you work. Here is a child (boy *or* girl) who:

1. Does not participate in learning activities or on the playground. He spends most of his time on the sidelines *watching.*
2. Finds it very hard to handle frustration. He is often hostile and throws temper *tantrums.*
3. Either subtly or very openly *makes fun* of children who do not do well in school or when they make mistakes.
4. Is the *only child* in the family. He has played and worked with other children very little.
5. Has a very *short attention span.* He spends little time on a given activity and has trouble finishing what he starts.
6. *Masturbates* when he is under pressure or during other times when his hands are not occupied.
7. Tells huge, *fanciful* stories. You are not sure whether he believes them, but he expects you to.
8. Giggles a lot and acts very *silly.* He disrupts group activities with his silliness.
9. Is very sad and worried because his parents are getting a *divorce.*
10. Has trouble *remembering.* If you tell him more than one thing at a time, he forgets.
11. Frequently talks about *death.* He discusses the death of his grandfather freely and with no more apparent emotion than for the death of the mouse you had in school.
12. Asks many questions about *sex;* how babies are born, why boys are different from girls, etc.
13. Is apparently *neglected* at home. His appearance is unkempt and sometimes

you notice bruises on his arms and legs.

14. Twists his hair and sucks his *thumb* during moments of relaxation or when he is excited.
15. Finds it very difficult to *share* materials and to wait his turn. He sometimes takes more supplies than he needs and hoards them.
16. Is very lacking in coordination and quite *clumsy*. His parts don't seem to work together.

This unit has been concerned with building of groups and clarification of values. Basic to mental health in the classroom are self-awareness, individual recognition, and a supportive climate for the students. The leader needs to keep in touch with his own feelings as well as those of the group and to develop a two-way communication system to facilitate this awareness of self.

Autobiographies, anecdotal records related to the group experiences, personal notes to and from students, and frequent conferences and dialogues are communication devices to be used throughout the workshop course of study. Measurement by a self-evaluative system should be encouraged to replace the traditional grading system.

It is the leader's responsibility to help the group participant develop self-trust as he develops self-awareness.

Unit 2

MENTAL HEALTH IN A CHANGING SOCIETY

OBJECTIVES

When you finish this unit you should be able to:

1. Define some of the characteristics of the mentally healthy, fully functionally person.
2. Describe some factors in your school which may prevent a child from becoming a fully functioning person.
3. Identify some of the factors in your own background which facilitated or inhibited your social and emotional growth.
4. Describe the differences between some present educational practices and those practices which are more consistent with the science of human behavior.

INTRODUCTION

There is substantial visible evidence of the many problems in our society that are connected with mental health. The loss of human potential because of social and emotional difficulty is well documented. The fear of the unfamiliar; the stress of adapting to change; the loss of productivity because of social and emotional problems; the cost of stereotyping, prejudice, and racism; the inability to communicate with people from different backgrounds and value positions are but a few of the symptomatologies of the problem.

In a society which is changing as rapidly as ours the educational system is caught in the middle. The schools are expected to prepare children for tomorrow's world, while many parents and educators retain concepts of education that were appropriate for a slower change of pace. Some teachers chose their profession because they wanted to help those who have less skill than they; they like to be respected and viewed as an authority. They need to be in a position of control. When they find their efforts rejected by emerging independence, when they see students questioning tradition and the authority, these teachers feel threatened and inadequate.

Although education tends to react slowly to change, several trends in society have been felt by administrators and teachers in schools:

1. A growing concern for the emotional health of our population.
2. A demand that schools heal some of the wounds of racism, poverty, and overpopulation.
3. The acceptance of the existential philosophy by a significant number of people.
4. The growth of sensitivity training and encounter groups to overcome alienation and loneliness.
5. The frustration experienced in attempting to keep up with the growth of knowledge.
6. The rebellion against authority and tradition.

A growing collection of critical literature indicates that the schools are failing to respond to these trends and to help children develop the resources for coping with the stresses produced by change. John Holt (1969) has been one of many authors in recent years to document the "gamesmanship" which prevails. He states that children seem to use most of their energies in "playing the game" and/or in subverting the system—rather than in engaging in thinking things through and in *owning* their learning.

According to John Holt in *The Underachieving School:*

> True learning—learning that is permanent and useful, that leads to intelligent action and further learning—can arise only out of the experience, interests, and concerns of the learner.
>
> Every child, without exception, has an innate and unquenchable drive to understand the world in which he lives and to gain freedom and competence in it. Whatever truly adds to his understanding, his capacity for growth and pleasure, his powers, his sense of his own freedom, dignity, and worth may be said to be true education.

Two types of problems may be observed in outmoded classrooms. In one, the child depends on the authority for the major portion of the decisionmaking and passively receives the rewards or punishments that tend to follow. In the other, children are highly creative in defending *against* the authority and consequently against the learning tasks that have been chosen by the authority. This behavior may take the form of hostility or rebelliousness, subtle or direct. It may show itself by such characteristics as acting stupid, clowning, laziness, or daydreaming. The problems are the products of a system in which power is unequally distributed. The behavior represents problems in which the joy of learning is missing. Very little is retained except the knowledge of "gamesmanship" and the negative attitudes toward self and school. Symptoms which indicate a need for change are:

1. The readiness with which children engage in name-calling.
2. Difficulties they show in working with groups.
3. Low tolerance or appreciation for individual differences.
4. Poor work habits during independent study.
5. Failure of many children to reach their potential in learning.
6. Answer-guessing that replaces thinking.
7. A lack of help for dealing with difficulties that arise because of family instability caused by moving, broken homes, poverty.
8. Dependence on authority.

Teaching in a manner that facilitates the children's ability to make decisions and to provide opportunities for the child's emotional and social growth requires a teacher with a clear understanding of her own values. However, teachers have their own hang-ups and often have had little help in exploring their behavior and developing self-understanding. Occupational hazards such as the high degree of interpersonal contact, the minute-to-minute decisionmaking, and the amount of stimulation and *noise* some 30 children can produce take their toll. Little time and energy are left for meditation and self-analysis. Teacher preparation usually concentrates on the content and methods of teaching, minimizing *processes* of learning. The methods that teachers study concentrate on cognitive skills rather than affective concepts and skills. Many teachers believe that the emotional and social growth of the child is the concern of specialized personnel and that the teacher's task is limited to a holding pattern until the child can be referred to the appropriate specialist.

The climate of the classroom, the content and the process of what is taught, and the social interaction within the classroom, all have a major impact on the child's development of healthy concepts, attitudes, and skills. The teacher is in a unique position to prevent difficuties and to provide primary help. The teacher can work with problems in a setting which provides natural support for the child.

The processes of therapeutic education hold the potential for developing a child's humanness, his skill in decisionmaking, and self-understanding.

This introductory unit is designed to help one begin to think about mental health in the classroom and to conceptualize a mentally healthy person. The philosophy and assumptions about human behavior that support

these goals will be examined. Comparisons will be made between the findings of the science of human behavior and folklore. This study will be used to introduce a plan for improving the practice of education. This plan focuses on the child as he interacts with teachers and with his peer group in the climate of the school.

Identification of the Problem

The system is being criticized from all sides. Most recent professional journals and magazines for parents have analyzed the schools all the way from accountability to the open classroom. The following suggested readings [2] may help the reader identify some of the factors stated about the schools which limit children's ability to reach their potential and to improve their mental health. Read and discuss concepts found in the initial chapters.

1. Gorman, Alfred, *Teachers and Learners.*
2. Silberman, Charles E. *Crisis in the Classroom.*
3. Postman, Neil, and Weingarten, Charles. *Teaching as a Subversive Activity.*
4. Holt, John. *How Children Fail.*

Definition of Mental Health

According to Carl R. Rogers (1969) in *Freedom to Learn.*

> It appears that the person who emerges from a theoretically optimal experience of personal growth, whether through client-centered therapy or some other experience of learning and development, is a fully functioning person. He is able to live fully in and with each and all of his feelings and reactions. He is making use of all his organic equipment to sense, as accurately as possible, the existential situation within and without. He is using all of the data his nervous system can thus supply, using it in awareness but recognizing that his total organism may be, and often is, wiser than his awareness. He is able to permit his total organism to function in all its complexity in selecting, from the multitude of possibilities, that behavior which in this moment of time will be most generally and genuinely satisfying. He is able to trust his organism in this functioning, not because it is infallible, but because he can be fully open to the consequences of each of his actions and correct them if they prove to be less than satisfying.
>
> He is able to experience all of his feelings, and is afraid of none of his feelings; he is his own sifter of evidence, but is open to evidence from all sources; he is completely engaged in the process of being and becoming himself, and thus discovers that he is soundly and realistically social; he lives completely in this moment, but learns that this is the soundest living for all time. He is a fully functioning organism, and because of the awareness of himself which flows freely in and through his experiences, he is a fully functioning person.
>
> Here then is my theoretical model of the person who emerges from therapy or from the best of education, the individual who has experienced optimal psychological growth—a person functioning freely in all the fullness of his organismic potentialities; a person who is dependable in being realistic, self-enhancing, socialized, and appropriate in his behavior; a creative person, whose specific formings of behavior are not easily predictable; a person who is ever-changing, ever developing, always discovering himself and the newness in himself in each succeeding moment of time.

Leader: State your own concept of mental health and describe the characteristics of a fully functioning person.

The following are suggested for reading:

1. Raths, James. Mutuality of effective functioning and school experiences.

2. Complete bibliographic information on the books and articles referred to in the exercises, reading assignments, and discussions throughout this work may be found in the Bibliography beginning on page 85.

Learning and Mental Health in the School. ASCD Yearbook, 1966.

2. Bower, Eli M. The achievement of competency. *Learning and Mental Health in the School.* ASCD Yearbook, 1966.
3. Berman, Louise M. Needed: New priorities. *New Priorities in the Curriculum,* Part I.
4. Rogers, Carl. *Freedom to Learn.*
5. Goble, Frank. The study of self-actualization. *Third Force: the Psychology of Abraham Maslow,* Chapter 3.
6. Kelley, Earl. The fully functioning self. *Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming.* ASCD Yearbook, 1962.

Conditions Fostering Mental Health

Although many aspects of our society are different now than when we were children, it is from our own experience that most of our attitudes toward mental health are based.

Leader: Think back to your own schooling. Write a description of the major events in *each* year of your elementary and secondary school experience.

What do you remember about your favorite teacher? Your hated teacher? Can you categorize the nature of your remembrances? Are they primarily cognitive, emotional or sensual?

Do you remember the State capitals? The failing grade? The smell of the lunchroom? [3]

In a small group session discuss what you remember about school. The following questions may be helpful:

1. What do you remember most—experiences related to learning, to other people, to authorities? Successes, failures? Knowledge, skills, attitudes?
2. What were some of the major experiences that influenced your concept of yourself? What helped you see yourself as capable or incapable?
3. Can you remember classmates who consistently failed? How did you feel about them? How did peers behave toward them?
4. What experiences encouraged or discouraged flexibility in you? Joy of learning? Ability to question and engage in independent thinking? Responsibility for your own decisions and behavior?

Observe a classroom, other than your own if possible. Identify some learning methods that seem to support the development of mental health. Describe others which impair the mental health of children. Compare the experiences of these children with your own experiences. What do you think these children will remember 20 years from now?

Most of the children in today's elementary schools will be less than 40 years old when we reach the year 2000. Describe what you believe will be the most important experiences they can have to prepare them for that period.

Fostering Mental Health

Many people protest that we know little about human behavior, yet we *practice* much less than we *know*.

Select and read from the following. Discuss some examples to illustrate the differences between what the science of human behavior has indicated and the educational practices that you observe.

1. Watson, Goodwin D. What psychology can we be sure about. In: Hamachek, Don E. ed. *Human Dynamics in Psychology and Education.*
2. Goble, Frank. *Third Force: The Psychology of Abraham Maslow*, Chapters 1 and 2.
3. Rogers, Carl. *Freedom to Learn*, Parts II and III.

EXERCISE

With the description you have developed of the fully functioning person, form a group of five or six people and together develop a list of objectives which you believe indicate when a child is growing toward self-

3. Technique contributed by Carolyn Ezzo of Lakewood Public Schools, Lakewood, Ohio.

actualization. Later, compare and improve it as you engage in subsequent work in this course.

ASSESSMENT POINT—PART 1

By now the participants should have had a chance to uncover some of their needs and interests as they pertain to this course. The writer has found it important to use at this point the channels and commitment for two-way communication. One method is a "Suggestion Box" in which participants can write notes to you at any time. You might also schedule conferences so that you can talk privately with students and let them know personally that you want them to keep you informed of their needs. You may ask the teachers to write out a description of their ideas and feelings at this point so that they may periodically check back and evaluate their growth.

PART II

A FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING BEHAVIOR

The units in this segment of the course of study are designed to help the teacher understand more about behavior, its causes and effects. The framework of the study is the behavior equation described by Dr. Ralph H. Ojemann. Each factor in the equation is studied in turn. The concepts from a number of authors are explored and applied in order to build a deeper understanding of what is known about each of the factors. Part III will subsequently deal with the problem of *changing* behaviors that are likely to have nonconstructive consequences. Although the emphasis is on behavior in the classroom, the same principles can be applied to any behavior.

Unit 3

AN APPROACH TO PROMOTING MENTAL HEALTH IN THE CLASSROOM

OBJECTIVES

When you finish this unit, you should be able to:

1. Describe the "causal approach" to behavior.
2. Compare this approach with at least two other approaches to fostering emotional and social growth.
3. Distinguish between causal and noncausal behaviors.
4. State some of the research findings related to the causal approach.
5. Identify the goals of a program which you believe would foster mental health in the classroom.

INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces an approach to behavior which has been termed the "causal approach" (based on the work of Dr. Ralph H. Ojemann) and explores some of the implications of such an approach to the mental health of children. The approaches of Berman, Raths, Torrance, and others are also presented. Although these approaches have basic elements in common, the curricular materials have been developed to explain the causal approach.

The causal approach has been described by Ojemann as an approach that looks below the surface behavior and seeks to understand the causes and effects of that behavior. Although the concept seems simple, the approach is different from that generally taken in our society. Usually people expend their energies in dealing with the overt behavior rather than looking for the basic causes of such behavior.

Ojemann based his approach on the idea of primary prevention. The intent is to find the sources of the problems, alleviate the causes, and establish a climate in which others do not experience the same kind of difficulty. Children in the classrooms are taught to:

1. look for possible causes;
2. examine possible effects of the behavior;
3. propose alternative courses of action; and
4. view their guesses about possible causes and effects in terms of probability.

Some of the findings from behavioral science are taught to children: The needs people have, ways in which people learn to satisfy needs, and some of the effects certain behaviors have produced in the past. The teachers are trained so that they may demonstrate the approach in day-to-day interaction with the children.

A series of research studies was conducted by Ojemann and his colleagues. The research indicates that children *can* be taught to understand a causal approach to behavior.

The approach emphasizes the belief that the individual *has* choices and is the architect of his own development. In other words, the approach assumes a position that man is basically good, can work to improve himself, and can take responsibility for his own des-

tiny. In this way, the approach is closer to the Third Force psychologists than to the Freudian or Skinnerian Schools.

This unit contains a number of experiences designed to help formulate a plan for changing classroom practices.

Plan for Promoting Mental Health

Several authors have suggested plans for promoting conditions for better emotional and social growth in the classroom.

A. Select from the following writings and discuss the descriptions of plans and procedures for the promotion of mental health in the classroom:

1. Ojemann, Ralph H. The Human Relations Program at the State University of Iowa.
2. Ojemann, Ralph H. The Causes and Consequences of Behavior.
3. Redl, Fritz. *When We Deal With Children.*
4. Muuss, Rolf E. Mental Health Implications of a Preventive Psychiatry Program in the Light of Research Findings.
5. Berman, Louise M. *New Priorities in the Curriculum.*
6. Gorman, Alfred. *Teachers and Learners; The Interactive Process in Education.*
7. Raths, Harmin, and Simon. *Values and Teaching.*
8. Torrance, E. Paul. *Rewarding Creative Behavior.*

B. Criticize the research studies reviewed in the above readings. What other aspects of emotional and social growth would you like to have measured? How might you test out the effectiveness of any of these approaches?

C. From your discussion develop a list of goals for a program in human behavior and mental health which represents a synthesis of the above and your own ideas. Compare your list with the following:

Goals of a Program for Promoting Mental Health [4]

The goals of a program in human behavior and a classroom climate designed to promote the development of mental health would include experiences designed to promote development of:

1. the empathy to see situations from another person's viewpoint;
2. the flexibility to think of several alternatives in a given situation and to handle multiple stimuli at the same time;
3. the recognition that there are reasons for the ways in which people behave;
4. the awareness that there are several ways for working through any problem;
5. the ability to identify differences between an approach that seeks to understand behavior vs. one that does not and a commitment to taking an understanding approach;
6. an appreciation of the complexity of human behavior (the same need can produce markedly different behaviors; the same behavior can represent different need systems);
7. a sense of responsibility for one's own behavior—the consequences of the freedom which comes from making decisions for himself;
8. the awareness that one's own behavior and the behavior of others has both short and long term effects;
9. the predilection to withhold premature judgment and to think through the alternative rather than to react blindly;
10. the ability to make considered judgments that can be supported, rather than arbitrary unsupported judgments;
11. skill in critically analyzing data for the validity of its source and the completeness of the information (vs. being too relativistic or too hasty);
12. when blind reactions or mistakes occur, the ability to think through the

4. This list developed by Karen Todd may be duplicated for distribution to the group.

problem after the heat of emotion has passed, take steps to modify the previous reaction, and use the learning from this experience in subsequent behavior;

13. the ability to evaluate behavior in terms of the effects it produces on himself and on others;
14. the predilection to understand the basis of rules and to behave in a manner that he believes to be helpful to himself and others—whether or not the rules are enforced;
15. a sense of control over and an active participation in determining his own life;
16. the appreciation for individual differences—the refusal to accept stereotypes or decisions based on only a few items of information such as the group in which a person can be classified;
17. the awareness that every human is limited and needs the help of others at times—a refusal to view these limitations as a reason for depreciating his opinion of the person;
18. an appreciation of and security in his own uniqueness—his abilities, his limits, and his handling of change;
19. an understanding of cause-effect relationships in human behavior particularly his own behavior;
20. a working balance between the affective and the cognitive aspects of his personality—a decreasing amount of compartmentalization and an increasing acceptance of the contribution of the emotional as well as the rational abilities that he has;
21. the ability to tolerate ambiguity and evaluate conditions on the basis of probability, rather than to expect to depend on certainty;
22. the ability to identify his own needs sufficiently so that he may seek the kind of help he needs—a knowledge of possible sources of help;
23. the tendency to help others understand where he is and what he is feeling—takes responsibility for communicating his needs to others and for sharing pertinent data about himself to others;
24. the skill and commitment to listening to and helping others as they communicate their needs and feelings;
25. Skill in the process of gathering and using knowledge about human behavior and in relating to other people;
26. a commitment to helping self and others build the resources for satisfying needs;
27. consistency between his values, his feelings, and his behavior;
28. less fear of the unfamiliar and of a lack of control because of an appreciation for his own resources;
29. a concern for the rights of others and a respect for those who *struggle* to solve problems, as well as for those who find solutions;
30. less punitive and critical of failure in others—seeks to prevent the reoccurrence of mistakes rather than retaliate;
31. an active participation in the learning process in the classroom—seeking relevant experiences, making decisions about his learning, evaluating his own progress, and viewing the teacher as a guide and resource rather than as a disciplinarian and power figure;
32. sufficient gratification of his social and emotional needs and sufficient success experiences that abstract learning is not only possible but also challenging.

Objectives for a Program to Foster Mental Health

Ojemann and his colleagues (1966) developed a series of handbooks for teachers to use in teaching a causal approach to human behavior. A list of the objectives of this program follows:

When presented with common, everyday, meaningful situations, such as he might ex-

perience directly or indirectly, the child begins or continues his growth in using some of the methods for understanding and dealing with human behavior. This learning will be indicated by his ability to:

1. demonstrate a desire to find out about causes before making a judgment about behavior;
2. identify more than one cause for a given behavior;
3. distinguish between likely and unlikely causes of behavior;
4. describe some of the motivating forces of human behavior;
5. order the motivating forces in their probable degree of importance in a given situation;
6. identify more than one alternative for working out a given problem;
7. identify possible short- and long-term effects of these alternatives;
8. distinguish between likely and unlikely effects of behavior;
9. make decisions in his everyday life which are supported by evaluation of the possible effects and the choice of desired effects;
10. verbally reject judgments which reflect arbitrary application of rules or inadequate evaluation of information.

The pupil will begin to understand the work of the teacher as a guide to his learning and the process of learning as important *to him* as indicated by his ability to:

1. describe how a teacher helps in learning;
2. describe some of the ways people learn;
3. verbally distinguish some factors which may contribute to learning vs. those which may interfere;
4. identify ways his schoolwork can help him as an individual;
5. talk to the teacher about problems which interfere with his learning;
6. distinguish between behaviors which the teacher uses in an emergency situation vs. those which are used for working out a problem when more time is available;
7. seek help when he has a problem which interferes with his learning;
8. contribute data to the teacher about interests and ideas which should be considered in deciding on learning tasks;
9. effectively use time in independent study situations.

The pupil grows in his ability to take the initiative or some responsibility for working out some of his simpler problems as indicated by his ability to:

1. describe common emotional states;
2. identify the nature of his problem;
3. seek help in clarifying the nature of his problem when he is unable to define it;
4. identify some common elements of his own problems and those described in accounts of behavior found in literature, social science, etc;
5. identify ways in which experience and individual makeup influence behavior;
6. use more and more resources for problem solving;
7. identify more than one way of handling his problem and describe the possible effects of each on himself and others.

The pupil begins to recognize that data from past studies can be of benefit in understanding and appreciating the behavior of others as indicated by his ability to:

1. describe some of the reasons why our society has developed certain codes of behavior and some of the effects of these codes on the behavior of people in our society;
2. identify some of the characteristics in which people vary and describe some of the effects of these differences on the ways people work out needs and feelings;
3. seek to find out more about individual people and why they behave as they do

and indicate a belief that this knowledge helps him work better with people;

4. describe ways in which resources of people have changed over time.

The child begins to appreciate some of the effects of natural surroundings on human behavior as indicated by his ability to:

1. identify ways in which people in different regions have modified their behavior in order to obtain what they need;
2. describe ways in which man has worked to change the environment and its effects on him.

EXERCISES

A. Using your description of a fully functioning person, examine the objectives closely. Modify your set of goals developed in the last exercise if needed and rephrase the goals so that they describe learner *behaviors*. In other words, write a set of objectives which state what you would like the learner to be able to do when he completes such a program.

B. Your list of objectives is for the development of curricular materials. Describe some of the elements of a classroom climate which would support such a program.

Contrast of the Causal and Noncausal Approach

As indicated before, the causal approach asks two questions: What need was he (the behaver) trying to satisfy? Why did he try to work it out this way rather than another?

A. In a small group, in 6 minutes, come up with at least six specific examples of common practices and behaviors which treat behavior as it appears on the surface rather than at the causal level. Share your ideas with the other groups. Include examples from society in general, law, religion, family patterns, school, etc.

B. Describe the difference between a surface and a causal approach in each of the following circumstances:

1. Jimmy came to school this morning a "holy terror." He has picked fights, talked back, and generally been in trouble all morning. He has been acting this way every Friday for the last month and you have had about all you can take.
2. Billy has a new baseball glove. It has "BOB" written on it in large letters and Billy swears it is his. He does not want to give up the glove.

NOTE: In actual instances such as those described above it has been found that: (1) Jimmy's mother has been going to see a doctor on Fridays and was very frightened about an impending operation. Jimmy knew that his mother was seeing the doctor but was not aware of the effect of her tension on his behavior in school. (2) Billy was from a large family which had very little money. Billy seldom got anything new or that was his very own. What difference does this information have on your perception of the problem?

Unit 4

FORCES THAT MOTIVATE BEHAVIOR

OBJECTIVES

When you finish this unit, you should be able to:

1. Describe some common theories of motivation.
2. Evaluate different theories of motivation in terms of which may be most useful for the classroom teacher.
3. Identify some of the stages of motivation on which a child might be operating if you are given a description of typical behavior.
4. Identify some of the motivating forces which might be underlying the behavior of a child in your classroom.
5. Describe the behavior equation used by Ojemann and identify the meaning of each factor.

INTRODUCTION

The model of behavior described by Ojemann (1966) has been useful in helping teachers examine the various elements that produce behavior and the effects that behavior produces. These elements can be represented by the following equation:

Motivating Force + Resources + Immediate physical setting = Behavior

If we wish to abbreviate it we may write Mf+R + IPS = behavior. (In this equation the plus signs are to be read "interacting with." They are not the additive signs of arithmetic. They are like the plus signs in an equation of dynamic relationships, such as we have, for example, in a chemical equation. There is interaction of the various factors in the equation.)

This equation is a kind of summary of a large number of observations. If it is a helpful summary, it should be possible to verify the many different relationships that may be deduced from it. Before we proceed to use it, therefore, we want to inquire if these relationships have been verified experimentally. If they have, then the equation will be a useful summary. If not, we shall have to develop another plan.

One of the deductions which can be made from the equation is that it would be difficult to predict the behavior of a person if only one of the three groups of factors on the left hand side of the equation is known. The equation says in effect that behavior is a combination of three factors. If we write an expression such as A + B + C = D, in which A and B and C can vary more or less independently, it is clear that it is not possible to determine the value of D from A or B or C taken separately. We must know all three.

There is abundant experimental evidence that we cannot predict the behavior of a person if we know only one factor.

The equation helps us to develop a general plan for studying a child's behavior. When we are confronted with a form of behavior, we should ask two questions: (1) What is the child trying to accomplish by his behavior—what motivating force is he trying to satisfy—what goal is he trying to reach? (2) How did it happen that he used the particular method he did, that is, what ideas, skills, etc., did he use and how did it happen he used these rather than others?

Much of the educative process deals with the development of resources. Attempts at education are more likely to be successful, however, if they are matched with the motives of the learner (what is relevant). When the climate of the classroom is based on an understanding of the needs of the learner,

the more humane conditions are likely in turn to foster humane treatment of the learners by each other. Thus the climate is available for effective learning in cognitive as well as emotional areas.

This unit explores various approaches to the question of what humans strive for, what makes us all alike, what is the basic nature of man. Your own ideas as to the goals people work for under optimum conditions can greatly influence your behavior toward others. If you believe that mankind is basically "bad" and "selfish," you will be more likely to exert strong controls. If you believe the nature of man is neutral and he is determined by his environment, you will probably reward "good" behavior and punish "bad." This unit focuses on the controversy as to the nature of human striving.

STRATEGIES

Emotional Development

The study of the nature of emotional development has generated a great deal of research and theoretical endeavor. The selections included below are those that I have found useful as a means of uncovering the kinds of problems people are most likely to have in changing their behavior.

The skills, attitudes and ideas a person has developed in previous experience form the *resources* (R) he brings to his stage of motivation. Thus the study of Maslow, Erikson, Freud and others who have identified stages of growth will be further considered in the following unit on resources.

Discuss the concepts found in the following materials as they relate to behavior that you have observed:

A. Goble, Frank. *The Third Force.* Chapters 4, 5, and 6 (Maslow's hierarchy).

B. Wilson, Robeck, and Michael. *Psychological Foundations of Learning and Teaching.* Chapter 10. (Psychoanalytic approaches and Erikson's "Eight Stages of Man.")

C. Chapter 2, Nature and nurture of motivation. Readings 6, 7, and 8 in Hamachek, Don E., ed. *Human Dynamics in Psychology and Education.*

D. Ashley-Montagu, F. *Touching: The Human Significance of the Skin.*

Application of the Concepts

The following examples are given to help you apply the concepts you have just read and discussed:

A. Mr. Watson won $100 at the race track. Although his family needs new shoes and a better diet, he used the money to buy a television set. Using Maslow's framework and terms, explain some of the possible motivations for this behavior. Discuss possibilities at each level of motivation and decide which level you would predict to be probable. What information would you need to support your guesses?

B. Cite examples of behaviors you have observed in the classroom which may indicate each of the levels of need on Maslow's "Hierarchy of Needs." Pay particular attention to the basic levels of needs, for although we would wish this were not the case, many children and adolescents come to school without adequate gratification of the basic needs. This is the case not only among the poor but also in the affluent homes where insufficient attention is paid to nutritional and sleep needs, or when the family constellation is unstable and emotional stress uses much of the available energy.

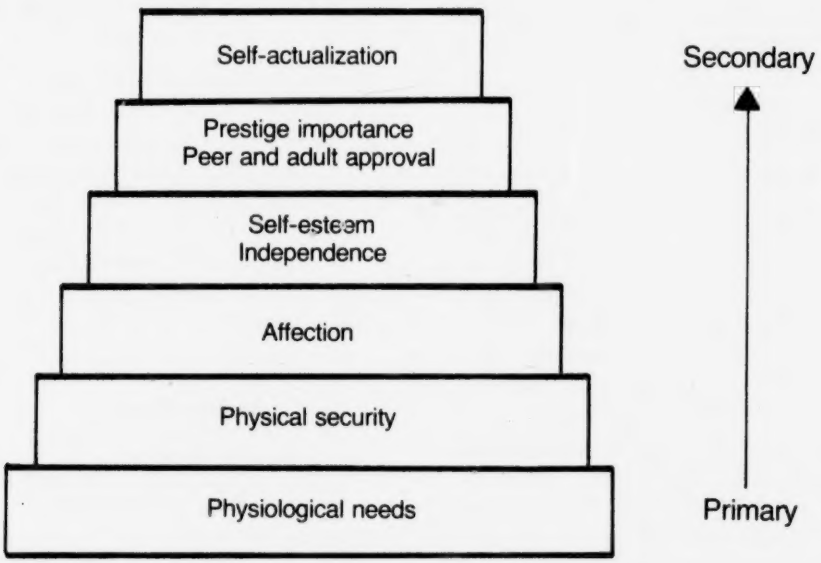
C. Describe influences in your school which are likely to *support* the child's growth toward psychological maturity.

D. Compare the various theories for what they have in common—where they differ.

Motivations for Learning

The following selections examine the motives which are more closely related to learning in the classroom. White's proposal of a drive for competence is expanded in

MASLOW'S "HIERARCHY OF NEEDS"



Source: Thompson, George G.; Gardner, Eric F.; Di Vesta, Francis J. *Educational Psychology.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959. p. 246.

writings of Bruner and Torrance. Piaget has studied cognitive growth in children.

A. Read and discuss the following:
   1. Bruner, Jerome. Motives in learning. *Proceedings of Jennings Scholar Lectures.*
   2. Torrance, E. Paul, and Myers, R. E. *Creative Learning and Teaching.* Chapters 1, 2, and 3.
   3. Wilson, Robeck, and Michael. *Psychological Foundations of Learning.* Chapter 11. (Piaget's stages of cognitive growth) and Chapter 16 (more complex motivation).

B. Examine your methods of teaching to see the degree to which you incorporate the concepts in the above materials into your instruction.

Behaviorist Approach

The behaviorist approach links behavior with past experience and, thus, views behavior largely determined by experience (R) and the contingencies of reinforcement found in the environment (IPS). Learning is associated with primary drives, and through learning secondary drives may be viewed as the motivators in the behavior equation.

Behaviorists often indicate that they do not care what the causes for the behavior are. They find a reinforcer and shape the desired behavior. It is an interesting point, however, that the reinforcer is by definition something that works (increases the probability of the behavior's recurrence). It seems likely that the reinforcer will be dependent on the needs that are influencing the behavior. Even a behaviorist would be likely to find an effective reinforcer more quickly if he understood something about common motivational forces. An understanding of changes in motives also may influence the behaviorist to choose desired outcomes that are compatible with growth-orientation. Thus, he is more likely to shape behaviors that match intrinsic needs. Application of the work of behaviorists can help the teacher become more skilled in observing behavior and more

conscious of the effects of his own behavior on the child.

A. Select one or two of the following and discuss what the terms and concepts mean to you:
   1. Reese, Ellen. *The Analysis of Human Operant Behavior*. Parts 1 and 2.
   2. Skinner, B. F. *Walden Two*, or excerpts in Hamachek, Don E. ed. *Human Dynamics in Psychology and Education*, pp. 417-431.
   3. Skinner, B. F. *Beyond Freedom and Dignity*. For further depth.

B. Describe some of the possible reinforcers which are available to teachers. Which are available to learners.

C. Develop a plan for shaping the behavior of a student in your class. Plan the schedule of reinforcement and describe the expected approximations of behavior that are to be reinforced.

Examination of the Issues

Each of the approaches to motivation have support from a body of research literature, and each side would dispute the validity of the accomplishments of the other. You probably have had experience which could support either of the sides of the issue. Maslow has described two different types of motivation: deficiency and growth. Perhaps the behaviorist approach is effective for people who are motivated by deprivation whereas the more healthy personality can be understood by the application of growth-motivation theory. The growth of the encounter group movement for normal people who want to become more effective is based on belief in the latter type of motivation.

A. Read Goble, *Third Force: The Psychology of Abraham Maslow*.

B. Below are some statements about what people strive for and seek to avoid. These lists are based on the work of Maslow. Read the lists and add to them from your own experience.

Human beings avoid being:

manipulated,
dominated,
pushed around,
determined by others,
misunderstood,
treated like an object,
treated as a category or example rather than an individual.

Human beings seek:

self-determination,
control over their fate,
ability to plan and carry out own action,
success,
responsibility—especially for self,
activity rather than passivity,
a fair acknowledgment of their capabilities.

C. The previous listing assumes a positive view of the nature of man. Thus if a person does not show the characteristics, there would follow the assumption that something is wrong. Contrast this view with the approach of the behaviorists. What do you believe? Why?

Unit 5

RESOURCES AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON BEHAVIOR

OBJECTIVES

When you finish this unit, you should be able to:

1. Identify stages of social growth according to two or more theories.
2. Describe some of the patterns of physical growth and its effects on available resources.
3. Identify some possible reasons why people steal, lie, cheat, conform, become aggressive or shy.
4. Indicate some of the ways in which conflict affects human development.
5. Identify some of the conditions under which conflict can produce growth or prevent growth.
6. Compare two pupils by describing the differences in social development of each which may influence the behavior patterns they show.
7. Cite examples of pupil behavior which indicates defensiveness rather than coping.
8. Using a description of behavior, identify which types of defense mechanisms may be operating.
9. Identify children in the classroom who seem to need special help in growing emotionally healthy.

INTRODUCTION

This unit is designed to illustrate the many different methods a person may use in attempting to satisfy his needs. The factor in Ojemann's behavior equation that is observable is the behavior. This observable behavior is the product of the innate nature of the person and his learned patterns of behavior as they interact in the immediate setting.

The reasons for separating motivating forces from resources is to provide a practical tool for understanding behavior.

The equation can help to get beyond the typical explanations which are given as causes of behavior, such as:

> He is lazy;
> I'm moody today;
> I have a hot-temper;
> He is an introvert;
> That is all you can expect from those people!

Instead, there are questions to be asked:

> What is he trying to accomplish?
> How did he learn to use those behaviors rather than some other behaviors?
> What does he need for continued growth toward maturity?

This study is intended to increase awareness of the complexity of human behavior. This awareness will emphasize the need to gather information and to look beyond manifestations before reaching conclusions. "I don't care" may mean "I care too much."

Each motivating force may be expressed by the use of a number of different methods. A child who is frightened and is attempting to gain a sense of safety may cry, fight, run away, daydream, cling to an adult, or whistle loudly. The methods that he uses are largely a result of previous learning. The term "resources" has been applied to the available ideas, skills, attitudes, energy, and perceptions that combine to influence *which* alternative behavior will be shown.

Several resources must be available to

provide a real alternative in a given situation. Perception plays a large role in determining which resources are available. A child who views himself as a bad boy tends to act in a way that supports that perception. More socially acceptable behaviors may not be available to him at a given time because of this perception.

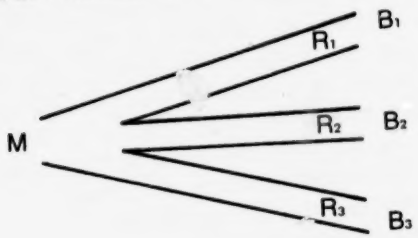
According to Rogers (Beck 1960),

> . . . given certain psychological conditions, the individual has the capacity to reorganize his field of perception, including the way he perceives himself, and that a concomitant or a resultant of this perceptual reorganization is an appropriate alteration of behavior.

Rogers further states (pp. 583–584):

> It would appear that when all of the ways in which the individual perceives himself—all perceptions of the qualities, abilities, impulses, and attitudes of the person, and all perceptions of himself in relation to others—are accepted into the organized conscious concept of the self, then this achievement is accompanied by feelings of comfort and freedom from tension which are experienced as psychological adjustment.

Students want to feel that they belong and have the approval of others (M). One person, feeling this need, may follow the teacher around to do favors (R_1/B_1). Another may use the most colorful language he knows as an attempt to gain favor with peers (R_2/B_2). Another may work especially hard on painting, hoping to win a contest along with fame and fortune (R_3/B_3). The types of resources that would be involved in producing each of the behaviors are different in each case. The separation of motivation from the resources can help to explain why a given need can result in a number of behaviors.



Conversely, a given behavior can be the result of several possible motivators. *Telling a lie* (B_1) may be used as a person attempts to gain self-esteem (M_1), maintain safety (M_2), or find a sense of belonging (M_3).

Perception

Past experiences and the present motivation influence what a person will perceive in a given situation. This interaction affects a choice of possible alternatives which the individual will perceive and be able to use. A person may have money. However, his own perception of what he needs and his ideas about himself and other people will influence his utilization of the money in time of need. Two children in the same class may perceive the room climate as different. A child may have a skill in reading, yet see himself as stupid and incapable and, thus, act stupidly.

For more understanding of perception as it relates to behavior, read and discuss Arthur Combs' article, "Seeing is Behaving."

Conflict and Stress

A deterrent in the satisfaction of needs can have numerous consequences depending on the resources the person has available.

A. Torrance has indicated the complexity of stress in his book, *Mental Health and Constructive Behavior*. The chart on page 20 of the book indicates that the possible consequences of stress change with the *intensity* and *duration* of the stress. Discuss the implications of this chart by using such questions as:
   1. What differences in resources might be available to two brothers, one who becomes criminal and the other who becomes a policeman?
   2. What availability of resources might a broken home contribute to creativity or to destructive hostility in a child?
   3. Contrast the resources of a child who cheats when competition becomes hard vs. the child who tries harder.

B. We may speak of the child's wanting to belong and clowning around to win the

acceptance of his peers, but human behavior is more complex than that. It may be expedient to simplify the descriptions of what happens, but the problems that people face usually involve interrelated or conflicting resources and needs. Introductory psychology books deal with the types of conflict and the degree of difficulty generally involved in resolving the conflict. The concept of cognitive dissonance is also useful in describing some of the behaviors in which people engage during and following the making of a decision.

1. Dissonance is discussed by Hunt in "Experience and the Development of Motivation: Some Reinterpretation" in Hamachek, *Human Dynamics;* and Festinger, *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance,* Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1957. Discuss some times in which you have experienced dissonance.
2. Torrance in *Mental Health and Constructive Behavior,* identifies the following symptoms of stress. Discuss this list in terms of your own behavior. Give examples of pupil behavior which may be a reaction to stress:
   a. Diminished initiative, keenness, and enthusiasm—a "so what" or "let it be" attitude
   b. Tendency to shun others and sit alone
   c. Quarrelsomeness
   d. Tendency to criticize others
   e. Restlessness
   f. Increased use of props, such as alcohol, tobacco, and drugs
   g. Drowsiness
   h. Mechanical quality of movement
   i. Loss of weight—sometimes an excess weight gain
   j. Loss of confidence
   k. Recklessness and boldness calculated to restore confidence
   l. Disregard of danger and carelessness about safety.

Behavior Mechanisms

Human beings are complex in the means they use to meet their basic needs. Reactions to stress and conflict or to continued failure can produce complex resources that impede growth.

TYPES OF BEHAVIORS WITH EXAMPLES SHOWING RESOURCES PEOPLE OFTEN USE[5]

The following behavior patterns are possible in any interaction and may or may not enter our awareness. The first types are ineffective, nongoal oriented and used by most of us some of the time. The seriousness of these behaviors depends on the degree to which we use the pattern and postpone working at the source of the conflict.

Aggressive Behaviors—attempts to control a situation through actions or activities to excel over the other, manipulate, outsmart, or belittle.

EXAMPLES:

1. Arguing with the person.
2. Starting or continuing with a procedure when the other person shows fear or reluctance.
3. Persuading, urging, insisting, or coercing.
4. Using authority figures or references to such as an attempt to manipulate conformity.
5. Using anger to control another.
6. Seducing.
7. Deceiving, name-dropping, or using jargon known only by the "in" group.
8. Fault finding or excessively criticizing.

Compliant Behaviors—attempts to gain approval and acceptance from someone by obeying his commands.

EXAMPLES:

1. Agreeing without exploring the ideas or opinions expressed.

5. By Karen Todd; based in part on a mimeographed worksheet prepared by Delores Pye for Forest Hill Presbyterian Church Adult Education Program, Cleveland, Ohio, 1969.

2. Obeying commands without question, even if they are in opposition to own safety or needs.
3. Showing fear of authority figures—wondering whether "it" is allowed.
4. Wanting to be all things to all people.
5. Being nonjudgmental to a fault.
6. Overprotecting or "owning" other people's problems.
7. Taking on the characteristics of the other person.

Escape Behaviors—attempts to avoid contact with another person or to avoid the problem at hand. Escape may be psychological, physical, or both.

EXAMPLES:

1. Citing theories or opinions of others as support.
2. Daydreaming.
3. Excessive frivolity and fun-seeking.
4. Leaving or withdrawing.
5. Changing subject.
6. Becoming immersed in something else, being "too busy."
7. Acting less capable than he is, regressing.

Ignoring Behaviors—attempts to block the realization that the conflict exists.

EXAMPLES:

1. Forgetting or postponing.
2. Blocking or denying feelings.
3. Not hearing.
4. Explaining it away.
5. Seeing a greater fault in others.
6. Believing others have it in for him.
7. Showing the opposite of the emotion felt.

Reality Distortion Behaviors—attempts to deal with reality by perceiving the situation in simplistic and shifted forms.

EXAMPLES:

1. Shifting blame to someone else.
2. Viewing people through stereotypes and labels.
3. Working hard toward another goal, denying the value of the original goal.
4. Demanding perfection.
5. Viewing the situation in terms of what he wants to believe.

Instead of the above behaviors the individual can be taught to become more open to experience and to utilize data more effectively in coping with problems. Then he would show:

Facilitative, Actualizing Behaviors—accepting and prizing a person for his own uniqueness.

EXAMPLES:

1. Listening to others and to self.
2. Acting in a way that is congruent with feelings.
3. Risking openness and being in touch with his own feelings.
4. Refusing to play games—more direct in expression of ideas and feelings.

EXERCISES

A. List similar behaviors you have observed.

B. Read and discuss a brief description of common reactions to inner conflicts such as those discussed by Redl, *When We Deal With Children.*

C. Read and discuss Shostrom, *Man the Manipulator* and contrast with Redl.

Resources and Developmental Levels

The concepts involved in the "ages-and-stages" approach to the understanding of children have been questioned in the past decade. The major reason for this questioning is research which indicates that development can be considerably modified by experience. However, data from developmental psychology can be useful in improving the accuracy of interpretation of the causes of behavior. Caution: (1) Do not interpret the description of behavior at given stages as what each individual *should* or *could* be

doing. (2) Realize that the characteristics of the ages and stages *tend to overlap.*

A. The previous unit covered the common problems and the sequences in which these problems might occur. Discuss the implications of writings of Erickson and Piaget in terms of resources the individual may use.

B. Jerry gives the teacher no trouble and conforms readily. His work is on the B-C level, although his teacher believes him capable of A-B work (no IQ tests available). Behavior when the teacher is around is perfect, but children tell of his hostile behavior toward the people in the restroom or on the playground. Jerry once frightened some people with a knife. Jerry denies these accounts of his behavior. What resources do you think Jerry might be using? To what degree do your feelings about the child change if you know the child is: (1) age 6; (2) age 10; or (3) age 15?

C. M. arrives late to class, scolds students for unprepared homework and recites school rules for conduct. When visitors come into the classroom, a variety of teaching skills are demonstrated. M. appears anxious but elicits support from students. To what extent do your feelings about M. change if you know the teacher is male or female, age 23, age 45?

Resources and Physiological Factors

Physiological factors such as available energy, stamina, physical skill, can influence the kinds of resources a person uses. The factor of growth itself is an important influence at several stages of life, not only in terms of the amount of energy consumed, but also in terms of the social connotations of the size and shape that the growth produces. The growth demands new coordination and skills in using a body that has grown and changed in dimensions. In addition to growth and development, the existence of disease, handicaps, and other types of problems can influence the available resources and can modify the patterns of behavior which an individual tends to use. A girl who is small and frail learns different resources for coping with threats to her safety than does a girl who is large and strong.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

A. Growth and development generally proceed from head to foot (cephalo-caudal) and from the center to the periphery (proximo-distal).

B. Growth and development follow a sequence or pattern.
   1. Individuals grow at their own rate and according to their own pattern.
   2. Rates of growth are marked by fluctuations—spurts, dormant periods, discontinuity.
   3. Different parts and systems of the body grow at different rates and at different times (asynchronous).

C. Growth and development proceed from a general state to a specific state.
   1. From quantitative to qualitative.
   2. From concrete to abstract.
   3. Patterns of growth tend to be spiral in nature—a spurt of growth, followed by a refinement of the functions of that growth.
   4. Structures become differentiated and functions are organized and reorganized into more and more complex patterns.
   5. Within a pattern, individuals may skip or telescope the pattern.

D. Growth and development are continuous from conception to death.
   1. Growth appears to be most rapid at conception and slows down with age.
   2. Generation and degeneration are asynchronous and proceed at different rates with different systems and for different individuals.

E. Characteristics of the individual may originate from *phylogenetic* or *ontogenetic* sources.
   1. Phylogenetic traits are those that develop because the individual is a human being and belongs to a certain phylum (e.g., humans walk upright).
   2. Ontogenetic traits are those that each new individual has to learn. If the environment is not conducive to this learning, the individual will not develop these traits.
   3. Phylogenetic traits may be altered if the individual is *prevented* from developing a trait at the certain critical points of his development (imprinting).
   4. Imprinting tends to occur at the point at which development of that system is most rapid.

EXERCISES

A. Give examples of each of the foregoing points to illustrate how the principle can apply to the children with whom you work.

B. Discuss Wilson, Robeck, and Michael, *Psychological Foundations of Learning and Teaching*, Chapter 14, "Personality Development." Focus on the concepts related to physical typologies and personality.

C. Studies of the growth of systems in the body indicate very different growth patterns for each type. For example, the average neurological growth is very rapid in the infant and levels off to a very gradual pace of growth after the age of five. Skeletal growth is slow at first and then grows rapidly during adolescence. How might these patterns of growth affect behavior during the times of most rapid growth? What are some of the implications of the knowledge of growth patterns for teaching? What were some of the effects of your growing at a different pace and time from your friends?

D. It has been said that the way to a child's mind is through his stomach. Research shows that a great number of our children are receiving nutritionally deficient diets. Thus, it is not hard to understand the loss of stamina and inability to concentrate that we often see. In many schools children are fed breakfast before they attempt any academic work. Some schools for children with learning difficulties first improve the student's nutritional level before dealing with other aspects of the problem.
   1. What are the characteristics of a healthy child?
   2. Identify signs of poor nourishment in children you know.

Influence on Learning

Individuals show variation in learning styles and solving problems. The study of children with handicaps can help you appreciate the complexity of learning and the need to encourage variation in the methods children use for reaching a learning goal.

A. Read and discuss the implications of some of the following materials for *all* children, not only for the "special child" (since all are "special" in their own way).
   1. Kirk, Samuel A. *Educating Exceptional Children.*
   2. Redl, Fritz. *When We Deal with Children.*
   3. Haimowitz, Morris. Criminals are made, not born. Haimowitz and Haimowitz, *Human Development* or Hamachek, Don, E., ed. *Human Dynamics in Psychology and Education.*
   4. Gordon, Ira. New conceptions of children's learning and development. *Studying the Child in School.*
   5. Brearley, Molly and Hitchfield, Elizabeth. *A Guide to Reading Piaget;* and Ginsburg, Herbert, and Opper, Sylvia. *Piaget's Theory of Intellectual Development: An Introduction.*

Family and Culture

Each person's position in time and space is unique. Thus, within the same family or within the same culture each person experiences a different view of reality. There are any number of readings which may help you understand more about the effects of the position in the family, child-rearing methods, disadvantaged backgrounds on the resources a person builds. Several selections are found in Hamachek or in the other books of readings included in the bibliography. Discuss your own family position, sibling relationships, subcultural group, which influence the behavior patterns you use today.

Gathering Data on Children's Resources

Teachers sometimes forget that they teach children—not content. Teachers who are committed to knowing as much as possible about the people being taught have used ingenuity in developing a picture of each student as a unique individual. Often they use short periods of time for responses to open-ended sentences and other exercises designed to help the learners know themselves and each other better.

A. Read and discuss some techniques for getting to know students, such as those described in:

1. Raths, et al. *Values and Teaching.*
2. Brown. *Human Teaching for Human Learning.*
3. Gorman. *Teachers and Learners: The Interactive Process in Education.*
4. Richardson, Elwyn S. *In the Early World.*

B. *As a total group,* think of characteristics that may influence the resources a person develops. After you have listed these ideas, categorize and eliminate any duplications. Divide the list into small units and distribute them to individual members.

Individually devise a method by which a teacher could learn more about students on each of the characteristics. Criteria: the method should be easy to use, require little time, be fun for students, obtain maximum information with minimum effort, and is preferably interrelated with the school subject.

EXAMPLES:

Cultural background: a discussion of favorite foods among children.

Place in family: a drawing of "my family."

Unit 6

INFLUENCES OF THE IMMEDIATE PHYSICAL SETTING

OBJECTIVES

When you finish this unit, you should be able to:

1. Describe some ways in which the setting influences behavior.
2. Discuss some of the differences in societies in their connotations of time, space, and dimension.
3. Identify the degree of influence you believe the setting to exert on behavior (in comparison with resources and motives).
4. Describe how it might feel to live in settings quite different from your present setting.
5. Utilize the elements of the behavior equation to understand the possible causes of a given example of behavior.

INTRODUCTION

The immediate setting influences the behavior both in interaction with the resources and with the motivation. The aroma from a bakery may make a person aware of the fact that he has been hungry for some time. The resources a person has will influence those aspects of the setting he perceives. Two people who feel their safety threatened may perceive the same setting in different ways. This point was illustrated by a child from the inner city who expressed fear on a field trip to a suburb. He insisted that he would never want to live in a place like that because there were too many trees and bushes where people could hide and jump out at you.

The setting may influence behavior at a subawareness level. The humidity, barometric pressure, temperature, available oxygen in the air, a sunny day vs. a cloudy one, arrangement of furniture, color, and many other types of stimuli influence behavior. One may walk into a classroom and get some clues of the degree to which children will: interact with each other, move freely about the room, feel that their own work is the springboard for the lessons, value neatness and order, or become lethargic.

In this unit the *causes* of behavior are *explored* as the *situation* influences behavior. Some people are excited or depressed by certain colors. This can be a direct response to the color or to a former association with the color. Mary was ill and vomited when she wore a new yellow dress. The teacher was annoyed and expressed her displeasure with detailed questions about Mary's breakfast. Mary equated the teacher's behavior with criticism of her mother. Thereafter Mary would become nauseous when she was in a room which was predominately yellow.

Children often report that dots or stripes make them dizzy.

CLASSROOM ECOLOGY

Space

One aspect of the setting that teachers might consider is space. The study of attitudes about the closeness one can allow and still function well can be of value in understanding personal reactions and those of children.

Read and discuss the works of Hall, E. T.: *The Silent Language* and *The Hidden Dimensions.*

Situational Ethics

There are indications that the way we behave is governed by the situation in which we

find ourselves. The child's behavior may be different when a teacher is present. We teach differently when there are visitors in the classroom. We are cautious when we see a police car ahead.

A. Read Fletcher, J. W., *Situational Ethics*. Discuss ways in which the setting changes the behavior. Discuss aspects which involve the setting itself and those which relate to the resources which the setting evokes.

B. Discuss other aspects of the setting which you have experienced as influencing your behavior.

C. One technique for helping students better understand the *real* world outside the school is the "sensitivity module" method developed by Dr. Sidney Simon. Examples of the approach were given by Kirchenbaum, H., in "Sensitivity Modules," *Media and Methods*. Read and discuss these modules and *do* some of them. Make up your own list of ways to help *you* understand the world of your students.

Utilization of the Behavior Equation

Using the information about motivation, resources, and setting, analyze the following descriptions of behavior. Identify two or more possible motivations, two or more types of resources which might be operating, and the questions to be answered in order to make a guess as to the causes of the behavior in the following instances:

A. Danny was a "holy terror" today. He had already picked a fight and bloodied a boy's nose on the way to school. Now as he sat down to the math lesson, he looked sullen and ready for an excuse to explode. Miss Williams was surprised at his behavior, since he usually was interested in his work and got along well with the other pupils—except that time last month when he was in trouble and had to stay in the principal's office most of the morning.

B. Mr. Roberts was pleased with the talent that Lucy was showing in Art II. He took every opportunity to praise her work and point out the aspects he liked. Lucy seemed to respond well to his encouragement.

Her progress had begun to fall off lately, however, and Mr. Roberts was concerned as to what was wrong. He attempted to be even more encouraging, but today he noticed something new. Just after he told Lucy he liked the composition she was using for her drawing, he noticed that she ducked her head. When he looked at her work again, he saw that she had changed the composition and that the picture was off-balance. He wanted to talk with her about it, but she hurried off after class with Jimmy to whom she seems attracted.

Unit 7

PREDICTING THE EFFECTS OF BEHAVIOR

OBJECTIVES

When you finish this unit, you should be able to:

1. Describe the basic sources of disagreement between the behaviorists and the Third-Force psychologists relative to effective human relationships.
2. Identify your own position in the controversy.
3. Describe some of the factors which may change the probability of behavior.
4. Distinguish between the probability of certain effects dependent upon social and cultural factors.
5. Predict three or more possible effects of certain behaviors and the conditions under which these would be likely.

INTRODUCTION

To decide how to relate to behavior, one needs to look for the *causes* of behavior, and to predict the *effects*. Ojemann has described two types of effects—the short-range and the long-range effects. The fact that a given behavior *occurs* produces changes in the motivational system and in the resources that a person possesses. The degree of probability that a given behavior will produce a given effect is important.

Knowledge of human motivation and of the history of human experience can increase our accuracy in predicting the effects of behavior. Toffler emphasizes the rapidity with which our world is changing and points out that the roadmaps we used in the past may be inappropriate for the future. Many of us cling to the belief that the likelihood of certain effects is greater than it may actually be.

Before one can evaluate a behavior and decide what action is applicable one must look at the possible consequences of behavior from the standpoint of both the individual and the other people involved. In this sense the behavior cannot be evaluated as good or bad; it is the *consequences* which are evaluated. Many teachers have been cheered when a withdrawn child got into a fight. Fighting represented growth in the child's ability to express his feelings and to stand up for his own rights.

There are reasons for teaching children not to fight and not to steal. Human experience has taught us that fighting and stealing do not work out well in the long run. Generally we have taught children the rule and not the reason behind the rule. We cling to the rules even though the probability of negative consequences changes. As society changes, the expected consequences change. Thus if we are to help children cope with the changes we need to teach them to use flexibility and try to think through each alternative to its probable consequences.

Theories about human behavior differ in terms of what effects the gratification of the individual's needs may produce in the long run. If the needs of the larger group are to be satisfied, the individual is taught to deny his wishes and to control his wants in preference to the needs of the larger group. If this is the theory one holds, any evaluation as to the constructiveness of a given behavior will be weighed heavily in favor of the good of the larger group and on the teaching of self-denial and control.

Another view in contrast to this is the view of Maslow and several other "Third Force"

psychologists. According to this theory, a person grows toward maturity by having his needs adequately gratified. Maslow's studies of self-actualized people indicate that the mature person is one who has a basic core of self-esteem and who is able to reach out and show a commitment to other people. A person must learn to love himself before he can learn to love others. Thus, when a child is helped to satisfy his own basic needs he becomes less selfish. If one holds this viewpoint, one is likely to value a more permissive environment in which attempts are made to match the experience with the individual.

The reading and exercises in this unit are designed to help one examine some basic assumptions, evaluate their usefulness, and predict short- and long-range effects.

The writer has found this issue to be a major stumbling block in promoting the mental health of children. Our society is permeated with ideas on control and punishment as methods for child-rearing. Many of us have experienced child-rearing techniques based upon this type of belief about human nature. Therefore, our behaviors toward other people take on this approach. This necessitates our self-examination regarding the basic assumptions upon which we decide action.

The writer has encountered many people who find themselves with attitudes that reflect a belief in the "badness" of human nature. Recommended is an examination of the opposite view and of the findings reviewed by Goble's *Third Force: The Psychology of Abraham Maslow*. Identify some of the experiences you have had that have promoted the development of your philosophy.

STRATEGIES

Issues Constituting Effective Human Relationships

The issue of the basic nature of man has been examined in detail by authors with opposite positions on the questions. Read and discuss some of the following selections. Decide which way you lean and how this affects your behavior.

A. Hamachek, Don E. ed. *Human Dynamics in Psychology and Education*, Chapter 11, and contributions of Rogers, Skinner, and Bruce, pp. 540–578.

B. Goble, Frank. *Third Force: The Psychology of Abraham Maslow*, especially pp. 93–94 on Theory X and Theory Y.

C. Argyris, Chris. In: "Interpersonal Barriers to Decision Making," *Harvard Business Review*, has identified two types of approaches that he has observed in business organizations. Describe situations in which you have observed the effects of either of the two approaches.

D. Harris, Thomas A. *I'm OK—You're OK*. Transactional Analysis confronts the individual with the fact that he is responsible for what happens in the future, no matter what has happened in the past.

Changes in the Likelihood of Effects

The generation gap does not seem as great in the area of what effects people want as in the behaviors that they think will lead to these goals. As in all fields of knowledge, knowledge of human behavior has greatly increased in the last 50 years. Yet it is alleged that schools continue to operate at least one generation out of time. Other aspects of our society also show uneven change.

A. Examine your own sense of awareness of the future. What is needed to make predictions concerning the effect of the present behavior of your students on their lives in 10 or 20 years? The following readings are intended to help predict the future. Discuss the implications of each on your teaching now.

1. Slater, Phillip. *Pursuit of Loneliness: American Culture at the Breaking Point*.
2. Rogers, Carl. Interpersonal relationships: U.S.A. 2000. In: *Convergence*.
3. Toffler, Alvin. *Future Shock*.
4. Reich, Charles A. *The Greening of America*.

B. Explore your feelings about the predicted changes. Try to uncover why you feel as you do and discuss these feelings in small groups. The following sentence stems may help:
   1. The change in the future I will welcome most is . . .
   2. The changes I really would like to stop . . .
   3. If these changes do occur, I will probably . . .
   4. I think I feel this way because . . .
   5. The people I care about who would probably feel the same way about these changes are . . . .
   6. The people I care about who would probably disagree with me are . . .

Influences of Subcultural Groups

The consequences of a given behavior to the behaver will vary with the subculture or group with which the individual identifies, and with the individual's own perception of the world. Some groups say they believe "Do unto others as you would have them do unto you." Others seem to believe "Do unto others and then cut out."

Examine your own background and choose literature which describes backgrounds very different from your own. The list can be greatly expanded, but the following are some examples:

1. Wilkerson, David. *Cross and Switchblade.*
2. Green, Hannah. *I Never Promised You a Rose Garden.*
3. Mead, Margaret, and Baldwin, James. *Rap on Race.*
4. Cleaver, Eldridge. *Soul on Ice.*
5. Brown, Claude. *Manchild in the Promised Land.*
6. Greer, Germaine. *Female Eunuch.*
7. Adams, Margaret. The compassion trap —women only. *Psychology Today.*
8. Kozol, Jonathan. *Death at an Early Age.*
9. Herndon, James. *The Way it Spozed To Be.*
10. Hall, E.T. *The Hidden Dimension.*
11. Goodman, Paul. *Growing Up Absurd.*

Changes in Effects

Select in turn from the following list of behaviors and discuss: (a) possible causes for such behavior, (b) possible effects (both positive and negative), (c) alternatives that might be available for satisfying the same needs, (d) conditions under which the behavior might be constructive, (e) conditions under which the behavior might be destructive, and (f) any changes you might foresee in the probable consequences of this behavior in the future:

1. turning down a job and taking welfare payments to support the family
2. not getting work finished on time
3. lying to a friend
4. making fun of someone's mistakes
5. using drugs as a means of escape from problems
6. not learning how to read
7. wearing long hair and sloppy clothes
8. shoplifting
9. participating in a sit-in to protest school practices
10. having a baby

ASSESSMENT POINT—PART 2

This section has included the study of the elements of the behavior equation. Hopefully, the teacher will now show increased understanding of causes and effects of behaviors. If the section has been successful, the use of stereotypes and the tendency to attribute characteristics to an individual without recognizing his uniqueness should have been brought into awareness.

The teacher should have more questions than answers at this point. This condition can be the basis for further learning. The leader will need to be particularly sensitive for feelings of guilt which may be aroused. The next section may develop even more concern, since some teachers may have behaved to-

ward children in a judgmental, punitive way. The problem at this point is that they now may recognize the failures of previous behaviors, and their image of themselves as competent and caring may be shaken. Some of their major resources have been blocked and they have not learned new behaviors. It is useful to emphasize that the guilt they feel is a sign of growth, and thus an indication that they can improve their ability to help children. They utilized the best resources they had in the past and could not have acted in a causal manner—since they had not learned the approach.

The following units are designed to help the teacher develop attitudes, ideas, and skills to increase the resources to help children modify their behavior and behave in ways that are constructive to themselves and others.

In order to evaluate growth at this point, you may use a formal test, or informal or self-evaluating devices. The objectives listed at the beginning of each section can be used to discuss the meanings of each. This discussion works best in a small group. Each teacher may rate himself on a five-point scale to show the amount of growth that he feels.

PART III

CHANGING BEHAVIOR IN THE CLASSROOM

The subsequent units in this program deal with the modification of human behavior. Suppose the teacher has examined closely the possible causes of the child's behavior and has decided on the basis of available information that the behavior will probably have nonconstructive effects. Maybe the teacher thinks that if the behavior continues, the child will have a hard time making friends and will not learn the skills he needs. Or the teacher may feel that if the provocative behavior continues that she will "blow up" before the end of the day. At any rate, the teacher has decided to try to change the child's behavior. The next question is "How?"

Unit 8 presents a framework for modifying behavior and several different approaches for helping children change their behavior. Unit 9 examines the teacher's role in fostering mental health and some of the personal issues which may need to be encountered to increase classroom effectiveness. Unit 10 deals with the quality of communication between teacher and pupil and ways of building therapeutic communication. Unit 11 is designed to help one become more skilled in developing curricular materials that will promote mental health and in examining and criticizing materials presently available. Unit 12 treats the purposes for and problems of individualizing and promoting self-direction in learning. Unit 13 examines the role of group dynamics in the classroom. These units do not deplete possible areas in which a teacher may influence the school to increase its humane climate, but perhaps with this background such a teacher may be able to understand and modify behavior in the classroom.

Unit 8

MODIFYING BEHAVIOR: A FRAMEWORK

OBJECTIVES

When you finish this unit, you should be able to:

1. Identify the basic issues in the argument about the most effective approach to modification of behavior.
2. Define the major terms used in the Behaviorist approach.
3. Identify some similarities and differences between redirection and conditioning. Make a plan for proceeding from conditioning to redirection.
4. Distinguish between redirection approaches which are based on an understanding of causes vs. those which are not.
5. Describe some of the reinforcers used and their relative effectiveness.
6. Describe the types of punishments used and plan for substituting positive reinforcers for these punishments.
7. Describe the conditions which must be fulfilled if punishment is to improve behavior.
8. Distinguish between first-aid techniques and long-term discipline procedures.
9. Describe the characteristics of effective social first-aid.
10. Build strategies for modifying undesirable behavior.

INTRODUCTION

The practice of evaluating a given behavior in terms of its possible consequences rather than in terms of an absolute is viewed by some as a form of permissiveness in which any behavior is acceptable. When the causes of behavior are understood, it *is* often difficult to blame the person and it may seem unfair to hold him entirely responsible for his acts. However, the approach to behavior which considers both causes and effects indicates that although the reasons for a given behavior may be logical and the best alternative the individual had, such behavior may not be allowed to continue over a long period of time. Who is to blame then is not the question. Rather, what resources does he lack and what can be done to help him build those resources?

Since each motivator can be satisfied in more than one way, the individual does make a choice about his behavior. This choice may not be a deliberate one, but as a person gains insight into his own needs and resources he becomes more responsible for the consequences of the decisions he makes. In practice, teachers seem to take this into consideration. They are lenient with children and expect them to make mistakes in social interaction but are more rigid in expectations for adult behavior. Teachers fail to realize, however, that a child may have had better opportunities to learn about human behavior than a particular adult. Since most of our social learning has been by trial and error, it is dependent on the quality of experience we have had.

Learning has been defined as a change in behavior. Since the basic motivating factors exist as *given,* educators primarily modify behavior through changing the resources an individual can use. The motivation is changed as the individual succeeds or fails in gratifying his needs.

Usually when a child behaves in a way one does not like one chooses to block the behavior. This can be done by showing dis-

approval, punishing, pointing out the negative effects, etc. The motives are not gratified, and the energy is redirected back upon the individual. The problem still exists, but the tension level is now higher. The individual may try another behavior at a stronger level.

Behavior Changes

If the behavior is to be changed, there are several alternatives which will vary in their likelihood of success:

1. Block the behavior through punishment or removal from the scene, or by otherwise inhibiting the behavior. With punishment, the behavior may reappear at a level higher than the original level even though the punishment was extremely severe.
2. Remove the reinforcer for the behavior. The behavior will probably return if the reinforcer is later available.
3. Satiate by giving a great deal of the reinforcer. The behavior tends to return when the deprivation returns.
4. Restrain the behavior. The behavior will probably return when the restraint is removed.
5. Block the undesired behavior while reinforcing a more desirable response. The new behavior tends to be used only if it satisfies the original needs.

As can be seen, methods one through four can be effective over a long period of time only if another resource is built while the undesirable behavior is inhibited in some way. This is the basic element of the concept of "first-aid." First-aid in this context means the treatment of an emergency social situation until there is time to think the problem through and come up with a constructive, long-term plan.

In any discussion about modifying behavior the hardest concept to deal with and to root out is the belief that punishment works in and of itself. Probably one of the major reasons that punishment is still in the folklore about human behavior is that when the teacher punishes someone he feels that things are under control and thus his behavior (punishing) is reinforced. Thus, punishment may work temporarily for the one who inflicts the punishment, but there is strong evidence to show that the punishment does not produce the desired change in the behavior of another person. The behavior may be inhibited as long as the punishment is administered, but the behavior is likely to show up in other areas or to be shown at an even higher degree once the punishment is stopped. It is through the reinforcement of desired behavior that permanent changes occur.

There is some evidence that even praise might be *punishing* since it is an indication that the person who administers the praise is in a superior position. Maslow, Buber, Rogers, and others have observed that human beings avoid being manipulated and treated like objects rather than as persons. However, behaviorists try to enlarge a person's repertoire by making reinforcement contingent upon a greater variety of responses. Thus, the person has greater opportunity to obtain a variety of extrinsic and intrinsic reinforcers. Behaviorists point out that at present the control of behavior is haphazard and that the naive are vulnerable to the control of others.

This unit explores several approaches to changing behavior in the classroom. Several *different* approaches are included because one approach may work on one child in a given instance, while another approach may be effective with another child or another kind of behavior. The teacher can become eclectic and use whatever works. The framework for behavior change, however, can help locate the modification attempt in a larger perspective and can guide the development of an overall plan for change.

The major purpose of helping educators understand more about behavior is to *prevent* some of the difficulties that arise and pose threats to the mental health of the individuals involved (students and educators). It is easier to prevent problem behavior when the educators and the students understand the dynamics of behavior. Certainly it is easier to pre-

vent problems than it is to deal with them once they have arisen. However, educational practice has been to let a problem fester for a long time, then deal with the symptoms only. Thus the problem will arise again, unless all concerned learn to deal with causes rather than with symptoms.

STRATEGIES

Behaviorist Approach

Behaviorists have contributed large bodies of research literature in which the behavior of animals and of human beings has been shaped by the contingencies of the environment and by reinforcement. The approach is gaining favor in some school systems.

A. Read and analyze some of the following selections so that you may better understand the terms and the findings of behaviorism.
   1. Wilson, John; Robeck, Mildred; Michael, William. *Psychological Foundations of Learning and Teaching.* Part II.
   2. A more technical account of the S-R approach can be found in Reese, Ellen. *The Analysis of Human Operant Behavior.*
   3. Mink, Oscar. *The Behavior Change Process.*

B. Identify some of the types of reinforcers available to teachers.

C. Have the teacher select a behavior of one of his students that he would like to change, then develop a plan for changing the behavior. The teacher should identify possible reinforcers, schedules of reinforcement, successive approximations to be reinforced, and carry out the plan, observe the results, and discuss with a group of colleagues.

Third Force Approach

A very different type of approach to modifying behavior has been taken by Rogers, Maslow and others. This approach is based on a different set of assumptions about behavior and methods for helping people grow. Teachers should read and discuss the assumptions underlying these approaches.

1. Rogers, Carl. Some personal learning about interpersonal behavior. In: *Freedom to Learn.*
2. Axline, Virginia. *Dibs: In Search of Self.* (An application of non-directive therapy in play therapy)
3. Goble, Frank. *Third Force: The Psychology of Abraham Maslow.*
4. Maslow, Abraham. Some educational implications of humanistic psychologies. *Harvard Educational Review.*

Reality Therapy

A slightly different approach, somewhat in the middle in the contrast of the behaviorist and the Freudian, is that of Glasser. Glasser's recommendations for facilitating behavior change have been implemented in several schools. Read and contrast his approach with the assumptions of behaviorism and Third Force psychology. Describe how his plans might apply to your teaching:

Glasser, William. *Reality Therapy.*

Glasser, William. *Schools Without Failure.*

Reconciliation of the Issues

Although the preceding studies may seem at opposite poles, perhaps the positions can be reconciled. The effectiveness of the approach may be dependent on the type of motivation underlying the behavior. One read previously of motivation based on deprivation and that based on growth. Perhaps one of the reasons that the behaviorist approach has sounded attractive is that it has been used with people who are relatively lacking in resources. The encounter group and self-directed approach to learning has been designed primarily for the person who has some self-understanding and who needs the help of others to become more humane and mature.

A. Teachers may discuss the implications

of the two types of motivation and their feelings concerning the applicability of these ideas to understanding human behavior in general, and colleagues, self, and students in particular.

B. If one is interested in further exploration of the issue one might also read:
   1. Skinner, B. F. *Beyond Freedom and Dignity*.
   2. Rogers, Carl. Freedom and commitment. In: *Freedom to Learn*. Chapter 13.

Application to the Classroom

Before a teacher utilizes either type of approach to change, he should consider two basic elements:

A. Although there may be much disagreement on philosophy, the findings of research from each of the approaches are consistent with regard to *punishment*. Punishment is defined as a *negative* reinforcer, something that people will work to avoid. It does in fact *increase* the likelihood that the punished behavior will be shown. The situation in which the behavior is evidenced may be changed but the original problem has not been alleviated, but rather, intensified. The side effects are also great. One should read and apply the concepts found in the following materials to his own practices in attempting to modify behavior.
   1. Menninger, Karl. *The Crime of Punishment*.
   2. Redl, Fritz. *When We Deal With Children,* pp. 346–377.
   3. Kessler, Jane W. *Psychopathology of Childhood*.

B. Basic to a causal approach to modify behavior is the principle of *first aid*. In classroom situations, or even on a one-to-one basis, there are times when the teacher cannot "understand" or consider effects—something must be done to get the situation under control. This is comparable to dealing with a physical emergency—some first aid procedures are warranted. But just as in physical first aid, any old procedure will not work. Putting oil on a burn may make one feel as though things are under control; but if the oil must be removed before the burn can be treated, the situation may in fact be made worse by the emergency treatment. Likewise, the manner in which a teacher gets an emergency social situation under control is very important. Muuss has written on the concept of first aid and has pointed out two criteria for effective social first aid: (a) does it in fact get the situation under control? and (b) does it leave the way open for further treatment?
   1. The teacher should read and discuss Muuss, Rolf. *First Aid in Social Situations*.
   2. One should identify types of emergency treatments used in the past and decide whether they meet the criteria for first aid treatment.

C. Teachers may contrast the approach of Rogers vs. that of Skinner in the following examples and develop a plan for modifying each behavior. In the plan using the Skinner approach, indicate how one would find what is reinforcing the behavior, what schedule of reinforcement you might use; and how you might extinguish the undesired behavior. In Rogers' approach indicate how one might help the individual find his unique self and work from there.
   1. John cannot make mistakes without getting angry. He erases answers and cheats if he does not know the answer. He usually makes good grades but he compulsively works for "A's."
   2. Jane constantly asks for approval from the teacher in one way or another. She clings to the teacher, frequently stands near the teacher's desk, and asks for directions several times.

D. Here is a copy of recommendations for

classroom discipline regularly distributed by a supervisor of beginning teachers in a school system. One should critically analyze the list and decide which of the procedures may be helpful, and which may be harmful to children and teachers.

Hints on Classroom Management

(For discussion only; not intended as a guide.)

Don't let your children slouch.

Insist that they stand to recite.

Insist that they speak in complete sentences.

Do not discipline an individual in front of the group.

Do not threaten. If they are to stay after school, say so. Do not say, "If you're not quiet, you will stay after school." Say, "This class has been asked to work more quietly, and you have not done so. We will remain after school so that we can practice doing this."

Control the commotion during transition from one activity to another.

When you set a rule, always make sure that it is one you can enforce. Always follow through on the rule.

When children recite, make sure that they speak in *complete sentences*, stand when they recite, enunciate clearly, have good posture. If they do not do these things, it indicates poor standards by the teacher. If you begin to insist on this from the first day of school, you will have them accustomed to the procedure before a month has passed. *Do not allow them to interrupt each other.*

Remember: Children will only give their best if you insist on nothing less than that. Make them do things over if they are not up to your standards.

Set standards with the children during the first week of the new class. The first few weeks you will be flooded with people doing things over, but this will gradually dwindle as they realize that you mean business. You are training them to good habits which will benefit them all their lives.

Never make an impossibly large assignment. Short, snappy and numerous is more interesting and also easier for you to check. Be sure that you check every paper carefully.

Set up a routine for the opening of each session. You will find that, eventually, the children will follow this even if you aren't there. Substitutes will appreciate it.

Don't let the smallest whisper escape your notice. It's amazing how fast it can develop into a roar!

Always be prepared for your classes. You have a great deal to offer your children, and you will never be able to if you are frantically trying to think of what to do next. This is one of the major causes of poor discipline. Children don't usually misbehave if they are kept interested and busy.

Never forget that you will be one of the most important influences in the lives of your children. Always set a good example.

When someone drops in to visit you, always be warm and cordial no matter how inopportune the visit. Act as though this is the best thing that's happened to you in days. Thank them for coming and for the help and interest they have shown. Fellow teachers should not be interrupting your classes, however. Don't encourage any visiting with fellow workers during class hours.

Your principal is required to observe you. Take the initiative and invite him or her in to see your work with the class. Make a definite appointment, by the second or third week that you are there. "Mr. ————, I'd appreciate it if you could find the time to come in to observe an arithmetic lesson. I want to be sure that I'm going about this in the best way, and I know that you will probably have some good suggestions." Then set the time, or let him do it. Later, do it for another subject until all are covered. It makes it easier on the principal if you do the inviting because then he feels less like an ogre—when all he's doing is his job.

Always turn in things to the office on time. Be sure that they are neat and accurate.

Be courteous and friendly to all people in the building no matter if there are a few to whom you set up a personal dislike.

Don't discuss your personal life too much.

Never dwell on personal illness. You probably know people, too, whom you avoid asking, "How are you?" because of the sad dissertation you get in response.

Forget the pronoun "I."

If you need supplies, etc. always order from the office early enough so that the clerk is not rushed when she is busy. She'll love you for being considerate. Never forget "please" and "thank-you." The non-teaching personnel can be your most valuable allies.

Never leave the building until you are fully prepared for the next day.

Return papers to students while the work is still fresh in their minds so they can profit from their mistakes. Go over these briefly with class. Specific weaknesses, with individuals.

Watch for the child whose mind is wandering and draw him to the lesson with a question, or just mentioning his name at the end of what you say.

Be sure children talk loudly enough.

If someone is misbehaving, walk over and lay a firm hand on the shoulder, and then speak to him about it when you are alone.

Don't talk too much. It's boring no matter who is doing it. Some of your favorite stories are very dull for the children.

Keep you plans for the day varied. If you are having a lesson when the children are working independently, be sure that it is followed by a lesson in which they participate. Checkerboard idea.

Never lower yourself to the level of a child. Understand his level, but bring him up to your standards.

Be sure that the room is quiet when someone is talking, pupil or teacher, etc.

Set up good listening habits. People get farther listening than they do by talking too much.

Use every opportunity to follow through with individual help for the child who seems puzzled. Having a child who understands help a child who does not, is a good idea sometimes. Be careful of teacher's pets. This is especially a weakness of new teachers, and a sign of weakness in them. They rely too much on pupils to do work that they themselves should be doing. This often results in discipline problems. Worse yet, it may ruin the individual pupil so that it is impossible for him to adjust socially.

Follow the manual in working with your register.

Be sure that your room always looks neat and attractive.

Be sure that your cupboards are neat and tidy.

Have children dust morning and noon.

Keep your desk top uncluttered.

Put up chairs and pick up papers on the floor at the end of the day. Cleaning ladies appreciate it.

Don't kid and gossip with the children. Don't use slang.

Always have fresh looking bulletin boards which tie in with work children are doing.

If a bulletin board idea doesn't work out, take it down immediately, the library has many books to use as sources of bulletin board ideas.

Never slap a child.

Never cause a child to lose his self-respect.

Avoid having two people discipline a child at the same time, i.e., teacher and principal talking to the child at once.

Do not discipline a child in front of the group. You usually "lose face." Compliment your colleagues, thank them for help given. Humility is a most important characteristic; be sure you have it. Never complain about what children do not know when they come to you—just get busy and help them learn. Start at their level.

E. Discuss the difficulties in constructing any set of "directions for classroom behavior."

Unit 9

THE TEACHER'S BEHAVIOR IN THE CLASSROOM

OBJECTIVES

When a teacher finishes this unit, he should be able to:

1. Identify some of his own dominant needs and possible effects of these needs on his behavior toward pupils.
2. Describe some of the characteristics of a teacher who is a facilitator of learning.
3. Identify his reactions toward the "teacher as facilitator" role and describe some of the difficulties he anticipates in acting this way.
4. Give examples of behavior that indicate basic assumptions about human nature.
5. Contrast the "emerging leader" with the "defensive leader" and give examples of each. Describe objectives which can best be implemented by an emerging leader; a defensive leader.
6. Identify and discuss his own tendencies toward the use of rational or irrational authority.

INTRODUCTION

The major source of impact on the mental health of the child is the relationship with a teacher. Teachers are second only to parents in their potential for healing or hurting a child. The peer group becomes more important at later ages, but the impact of teachers upon that peer group and on the school climate continues. Although the teacher's contact with the child may be for only one year, its effect can last for several years. If the teacher's perception of the child is shared with colleagues through the lounge gossip or through cumulative records, the reputation of the child can be passed on for several years. The writer has substituted for teachers in kindergarten and first grade classes *early* in the school year and found that a few children may give a stereotyped description of several of the children in the room. "He's lazy." "Watch out for her, she's a troublemaker!" "She's kind of dumb," etc. If this concept is passed on so easily to a substitute teacher, it might also be passed on to neighborhood groups. The child's inability to break out of such labels can damage his mental health.

If the teacher is mentally healthy, in touch with his own values, accepting of self and of other people, and adequately aware of his own defense mechanisms and foibles, much can be done to prevent the occurrence of such labeling. However, if the teacher is anxious, concerned about his own problems and needs, and filled with unexamined stereotypes and prejudices, he may in fact support children for singling out other children who are different. It seems easier to cope with one's own faults if one can point out and magnify the faults of others.

As various types of educational technology take over the media of instruction, the role of the teacher as a *human being* in the classroom and as a model for human learning becomes even more important. The teachers of the future will probably choose from two or more teaching roles according to their own abilities and interests. Those people who are knowledge-oriented may develop curricular materials and spend their time developing the software to be used with the instructional equipment. Those teachers who are people-oriented will serve as the affect models in the classroom and will specialize in working

with individuals and small groups in facilitating growth of ideas, attitudes, and skills. The skills and attitudes needed for the building of curricular materials will be dealt with in later units. This unit focuses on the teacher as a model for being a person.

Since so much of what is learned in school will either be forgotten or will be revised as our knowledge increases, the emphasis of education must become that of helping children learn how to learn. If children and adults are to experience continuous growth they must have some knowledge of themselves and a large measure of self-acceptance, openness to experience, and trust in themselves and others. However, teachers cannot help students gain self-knowledge unless they are themselves engaged in the process of exploring their attitudes and skills—particularly their own concepts of self. It is not *possible* to teach content alone, since the attitudes of the teacher and students can enhance or undermine any subject that is taught.

One method for modifying behavior is to alleviate and prevent problems by helping children learn to take a causal approach to behavior. This approach can be taught through the curriculum and climate of the schools. Concepts can be taught to children through learning activities in stories and activities. An important element of the learning of a causal approach is the child's opportunity to identify with a demonstration model of causal behavior and to experience the contrast between how it feels to be treated in a causal manner vs. a non-causal manner. The person most responsible for providing this model of causal behavior is the teacher. The teacher who takes this approach tends to:

1. Look for causes of behavior before making judgments or acting upon them.
2. Seek to understand all sides of a problem rather than to apply a rule arbitrarily.
3. Know each child as an individual and attempt to match learning experiences with the needs of the child.
4. Be willing to listen to students about their problems, especially to those problems that interfere with learning.
5. Not to be shocked or judgmental about students' honest expressions of feelings.
6. Maintain professional confidence.
7. Provide experiences which help students understand *why* they are expected to do certain tasks.
8. Encourage students to take over more and more of the responsibility for their own learning.
9. Provide for basic needs and recognizes the predominance of these needs.
10. Give children a chance to "save face" and avoid power struggles.
11. Help children profit from mistakes as well as from success and to discover sources of errors.
12. Talk and act in terms of probabilities rather than of absolutes.
13. Seek to understand the background and frame of reference of each child.
14. Encourage open two-way communication of feelings in ways that are constructive.

The task of becoming aware of one's own feelings, motives, and values is a difficult, never-ending task. Few people spend time or thought in examining their own behavior and its effects, but many expend an amazing amount of time and effort in *resisting* such introspection.

Introspection alone is not enough. Only in relation to other people and their reactions does one begin to clarify one's own ideas and attitudes toward oneself. The task of becoming self-aware is made more complex and difficult by the tendency of many people to give distorted feedback. Seldom does one meet people who will risk being open and direct in their reactions to others and their behavior. Children can be open and direct, but they are taught to mask their feelings and behave politely.

Although it is well enough to agree on the desirable traits of a teacher, changing one's own behavior to show these characteristics

is a more difficult task. All people have anxieties, have made compromises with their ideals, have learned defenses that impair relationships with others and with themselves. Facing these aspects about themselves and attempting new behaviors is a painful, risky process. It is very difficult to accomplish the task of self-understanding alone. The process of becoming more fully human is a social process requiring feedback and interaction with others. Many people are actively seeking the kinds of relationships in which they can explore and dare to be their real selves. Hopefully, in the exercises that follow the teacher can not only read and meditate upon ideas that may help him understand what is going on inside, but will also get a chance to work with others in a way that will help him begin to see, and *like*, himself as a unique human being.

Although this unit contains a large number of suggested readings, it is imperative that each teacher become involved with at least one other person in actively expressing thoughts and feelings. Many of these expressions may be distorted at first as the reactions of the groups are tested. Hopefully, group members or the leader can help each person clarify what he means as he begins to become more direct in communication. Some time may be needed for clarifying the concepts in the readings. Teachers say it takes one or two years at least to begin to be consistent in using a causal approach.[6]

As each teacher attempts to build more understanding, these will be potential stumbling blocks: Many teachers have attached little validity to their own felt meaning and too much to an authority or the printed word. (Often this acceptance has been at a cognitive level only and made little difference in their actual behavior—in fact, they may have felt more guilty about their behavior.) Teachers in general lack self-confidence (observation of the teachers' roles in the community would indicate some of the causes), and seem to need a base of security. Each teacher must ask himself how this need may be influencing his ability to risk showing new behaviors. Since teachers tend to rationalize or bring learning to a cognitive level, one may wish to work at holding off this reaction until one experiences a full emotional reaction. Working through this emotional reaction may decrease the ability to compartmentalize or experience the concepts at a cognitive level only.

6. Personal communications from author's classes.

STRATEGIES

Self-understanding

The one way to avoid the anxiety of pain associated with self-growth is to retreat and allow an increasingly large segment of one's potential to atrophy and die. Past behavior may have been the best way of behaving in view of the resources available. Needless inhibitions may restrict one from risking, trusting, and being as human as possible. Inability to risk may be projected onto others, making it hard to accept others who are like you or as you wish to be. Self-understanding helps the teacher to tolerate and encourage children to express their emotions freely and to learn about themselves.

Jersild has explored some of the ways in which people avoid the issue of self-understanding and has pointed out some of the significant problems faced by teachers. Other selections describe some of the characteristics important for the healthy person and some of the difficulties in reaching self-actualization. Also included are descriptions of some of the techniques that have been used in sensitivity training.

A. The teacher should read some of the following and discuss the meaning they have for him:
   1. Jersild, Arthur T. *When Teachers Face Themselves.*
   2. Rogers, Carl. Philosophical and value ramifications. *Freedom to Learn,* Part IV.
   3. Menninger, William. Self understanding for teachers. *The Self in Growth: Teaching and Learning.*

4. Shostrom, Everett. *Man the Manipulator: The Inner Journey from Manipulation to Actualization.*
5. Bach, George R., and Wyden, Peter. *The Intimate Enemy: How to Fight Fair in Love and Marriage.*
6. Hamachek, Don E. ed. *Human Dynamics in Psychology and Education,* Chapter 4, Reading 13.

B. One should identify some of the "occupational hazards" of teaching and describe how these might inhibit one's own ability to realize full potential.

C. One may review and discuss or *do* some of the exercises in:

1. Schutz, William. *Joy: Expanding Human Awareness.*
2. *Auction.* A game by Creative Learning Systems, the version called Personal Goals.

D. Respond to the following sentence stems in "Building Awareness of Concerns and Anxieties."

Building Awareness of Concerns and Anxieties

(Duplicate for small-group discussion.)

Select and complete some of the following stems. Share the responses with a small group of colleagues if you can.

1. Most of all I value . . .
2. If they were to write my most significant accomplishments as my epitaph, I would like it to say . . .
3. I feel that I belong when . . .
4. I feel empty and out of touch when . . .
5. When I feel anxious or threatened, I usually (move against, move away, comply) . . .
6. The worst thing I have ever done is . . .
7. Even though I wish it were, it is really not possible for me to . . .
8. To me, loneliness is . . .
9. Home to me is . . .
10. To keep from feeling lonely, I . . .
11. Being a woman/man usually means . . .
12. When I think of my sexual experiences, I feel . . .
13. I usually find that sex . . .
14. I get most angry when . . .
15. When I am very angry, I . . .
16. When someone gets very angry with me, I usually . . .
17. When I am deeply moved, I usually . . .
18. When someone tells me of a serious personal problem, I usually . . .
19. When someone in authority blocks what I want, I usually . . .
20. Self-denial usually . . .
21. Some people find it hard to give and easy to take. I usually . . .
22. The thought of death makes me . . .
23. When problems get too great for me, I . . .
24. Death is . . .
25. To me, life means . . .
26. Regardless of what others expect of me, I usually expect myself to . . .
27. I feel I am alive in order to . . .
28. My word satisfies my need for . . .
29. I am dependent upon . . .
30. I usually stand up for my rights when . . .
31. I feel guilty when I think of . . .
32. In spite of what others think, I am . . .
33. If I could be what I wanted to be, I . . .
34. When someone cries, I . . .
35. When I am alone, I . . .
36. I get depressed when . . .
37. I am most alone when . . .
38. Social and professional commitments make me feel . . .
39. To me, religion . . .
40. I have been unjustifiably angry . . .

E. In previous readings by Toffler, Rogers, and Slater, there are some predicted changes which may be affecting you now as well as in the future. Consider these possibilities and share your feelings in a small group. Decide whether you like your reactions and what you could do to change the reaction.

Teacher's Role

To apply your new understanding of human behavior and of yourself, you need to examine your concept of the teacher's role. In the past when children sat in rows and "absorbed" while the teacher dispensed knowledge, the teacher was the authority (benevolent, hopefully) and the child was the sponge, not the critic.

As indicated previously, the knowledge that

a child acquires this year may not be valid in another 10 years. The knowledge that *will* endure are attitudes toward learning, critical thinking and decisionmaking, and other skills and attitudes that help him stay open to new information.

Much of today's system of education and other attempts to mold behavior depend on external rewards and punishments. People in authority also depend on the acceptance of their directives with a minimum degree of questioning and analysis. This tendency is changing, however. Young people seem to be much more critical, to want to participate in decisions (or at least be given the opportunity to do so), and to demand that they be treated as people with rights that are recognized and respected.

What does this mean to a teacher, particularly when the model of how a teacher should behave—taken from previous experience—is now questioned? Although it is true that many teachers teach as they have been taught, perhaps most teachers now find this behavior in conflict with their understanding of the needs of students.

The following selections are designed to help teachers examine different types of leadership and the basic assumptions underlying patterns of leadership in the classroom. Teachers who have used these materials previously have indicated that they uncovered some of the sources of conflict they had previously experienced but did not understand. The writer hopes teachers will be able to go on from this understanding and take steps toward individualizing instruction and encouraging more decisionmaking by students.

A. Farber, Jerry. The Student as Nigger. In: *The Sword*. (If you find the language in this reading offensive, examine closely why you might feel that way).

B. Rogers, Carl. The interpersonal relationship in the facilitation of learning. In: *Freedom to Learn*.

C. Combs, Arthur. *Professional Preparation of Teachers: A Perceptual View of Teacher Preparation*.

D. Examine closely your feelings about each of the characteristics of an effective facilitator or helper. Describe to yourself at least two instances in which you obviously showed the characteristic or showed the opposite. Discuss these instances with a partner.

E. In the previous unit on the effects of behavior you examined Theory X and Theory Y as described in Goble, Frank, *Third Force: The Psychology of Abraham Maslow*. The same concepts are pertinent in deciding what your role as a teacher should be. (If each teacher has not had a chance to absorb these fully, a summary of Theory X and Theory Y here will refresh previous reading.)

1. Decide which of the statements below reflect Theory X and which reflect Theory Y:

   a. We can't relax our standards. Poor learners should be made to shape up and work toward the same standards as other students.

   b. Grades are important. If we took them away, the students would not be challenged or would not work as hard.

   c. In self-directed learning, it is important to schedule a time for breaks and for recess. Students get so involved in their work that they forget to take time out to socialize and to rest.

   d. Bobby is too immature to work on his own. If he had any choice in the matter, he would fool around and bother other kids.

   e. As professional educators, we have the background for better determining what essential knowledge should be taught. It is foolish to ask students to decide what they should learn.

   f. *Most* students work well at tasks they have chosen.

   g. Most teachers would do only a *minimum* amount of work if they knew it wouldn't endanger their job,

and other people wouldn't feel angry about taking over their responsibilities.

h. A minimum guaranteed income for everyone would encourage people to seek responsibility and to develop and use their potential.

2. Write other examples of statements you have heard that reflect Theory X and Theory Y.

3. Identify which of the theories most closely fits your beliefs. Specify two or more examples of your behavior that indicate your support of Theory X or Theory Y.

4. Explore the possible consequences of taking a position and acting upon one theory or the other.

a. Name at least two possible effects of believing and acting on Theory X in the classroom, if Theory Y is true.

b. Name at least two possible effects of believing and acting on Theory Y, if Theory X is true.

c. Which type of error would you prefer to make? Why?

F. Two other contributors may round out your exploration of the role of a teacher who fosters the mental health of children.

1. Read Gibbs, Jack R., "Dynamics of Leadership." An address given at Conference on Higher Education, Association for Higher Education, March 7, 1967. Identify the major characteristics that distinguish the emerging and defensive leadership.

a. Give examples of leadership behavior you have observed that indicates emerging leadership or defensive leadership.

b. On p. 2 of the Gibbs' article, several goals which are best achieved by emerging and by defensive leadership are discussed. Examine these goals to identify which are most closely related to what you think the goals of today's education should be.

c. In subsequent units, you will study ways to increase the students' ability to learn on their own. Which type of leadership do you think would foster this growth?

2. Fromm, Erich. Rational and irrational authority. In: *Man for Himself.* Read and determine how these concepts relate to defensive and to emerging leadership; to the teacher as a facilitator of learning; and to Theory X and Theory Y about human nature. Describe at least two teaching incidents during which your authority was primarily based on rational authority. Do the same for irrational authority. What were some of your feelings about each type of behavior?

Improving Teaching Skills

There are many recommended methods for improving teaching. The selections below represent both radical and practical suggestions as well as propose a new model with which you may be able to partly identify.

A. The following readings have been selected to help you expand your concept of "teacher" and examine closely some of your reactions to "teaching" behaviors that may be different from your own.

1. Rogers, Carl. *Freedom to Learn,* particularly Chapters 1 to 7.

2. Ashton-Warner, Sylvia. *Teacher.*

3. Postman, Neil, and Weingartner, Charles. *Teaching as a Subversive Activity.*

4. Neill, A. S. *Summerhill.*

5. Skinner, B. F. Why teachers fail. *Saturday Review.*

B. Now that you have examined your beliefs about the role of the teacher, it may be appropriate to look at some selections to help you develop some precision in implementing those beliefs.

1. Read and discuss the techniques

developed in the following selections. Contrast the two approaches.

a. Meachem, Merle, and Wiesen, Allen. *Classroom Behavior in the Classroom: A Manual of Precision Teaching.*

b. Amidon, Edmund, and Hunter, Elizabeth. *Improving Teaching: The Analysis of Classroom Verbal Interaction.*

2. Develop a plan of action for improving your teaching. Identify the sources of support you might draw upon and try out the plan. Find someone with whom you can discuss the trials and errors.

3. Ask yourself the questions listed by Eleanor Parish in "Key Teacher Ideas." Identify the practices you would like to incorporate into your teaching.

Key Teacher Ideas[7]

1. Do you let the student decide for himself rather than give him the criteria to look for?
2. Do you encourage the child to try out his suggestions rather than discuss their merits before he uses them?
3. Do you let the child generate his own basis for action rather than serve as the source of his knowledge?
4. Do you take time to let the child grope, ponder, or mess around rather than direct him immediately to the conclusion?
5. Do you respond to explanations with questions such as "how do you know" or "is it reasonable" rather than agree or disagree with this explanation?
6. Do you keep an open mind as to the student's response rather than accept only that answer you think is "correct?"
7. Do you direct student thinking by introducing situations that "don't fit" or that may be surprising rather than telling them that they don't see the point?
8. Do you keep students actively involved (either physically or mentally) rather than doing the activity yourself?
9. Do you listen to student descriptions and push them for more precision rather than accept their first response?
10. Do you help students to question explanations in terms of the reasonableness of their own experience rather than accept the reasonableness of *your* experience?
11. Do you direct students in experiences prior to expecting analysis and meaning for words rather than presenting the vocabulary before the experience?
12. Do you adjust the pace of the exercise to the progress of the student rather than speed to "cover it" or drag to fill in the time?
13. Do you recognize that one experience does not mean comprehension rather than assume because the point is clear to one, it is clear to all?
14. Do you base your opinion of student performance on what you see him do rather than on what you assume he can do?
15. Do you select illustrations of an idea that progressively are less obvious than the simpler ones, rather than assuming that because the student sees the point in the simple illustration he sees it in all instances?
16. Do you continually involve the group in the activity by providing opportunity for them to express an opinion before doing an activity rather than let the activity be a demonstration monologue between the teacher and one or two students?
17. Do you pose questions to get children to think rather than to get the answer you think is correct?
18. Do you direct questions to the child's level rather than expect all children to operate at the same level of experience necessary to answer a question?
19. Do you probe the basis for an inappropriate response rather than tell the child he is wrong and then search for the desired response?
20. Do you make students back up and simplify complex statements so that other students comprehend rather than accept it because it sounds good or adequate to you?

7. Prepared by Eleanor Parish, Science Department, Educational Research Council of America, 1967.

Unit 10

BUILDING COMMUNICATION SKILLS

OBJECTIVES

When you finish this unit, you should be able to:

1. Describe ways in which a child can communicate his feelings.
2. Give examples of strategies you can use to build effective communication with pupils.
3. Distinguish between examples of behavior which indicate hearing at several levels of communication and those behaviors which distort, evaluate, or misunderstand.
4. Identify some of the feelings you associate with being heard versus not being heard.
5. Identify some nonverbal communications you use frequently.
6. Describe some double messages you might give.
7. Develop a plan for making your own communications congruent with your feelings.
8. Identify some methods of improving the amount and quality of communication between yourself and the people with whom you work.

INTRODUCTION

If one's purpose is to educate rather than indoctrinate and one's goal is to produce self-directing decisionmakers, the establishment of authentic two-way communication becomes a major task. When the goal is to produce passive, conforming individuals, such communication is unnecessary and may threaten the manipulator's ability to maintain control. If the methods for modifying behavior are those of operant conditioning, there comes a time (if the approach is used in an ethical manner) when the individual is helped to identify the contingencies, the reinforcers, and the goals for himself. These processes require two-way communication and an attitude which shows concern and acceptance for the learner. Otherwise, the individual is likely to rebel and show counter-behaviors when he is on his own.

All types of therapeutic relationships contain the element of communication, both verbal or nonverbal, and require that the people involved get in tune with each other. The literature cites examples in which major attitude and behavior changes occur after someone finally heard another's cry for help.

Generally, teachers communicate well on a rational, intellectual level but lack skill in open, direct communication. Training from very early years has been to cover up feelings and to pretend that we have only nice, pleasant emotions. We are taught to remain calm and that if we don't talk about a problem it will go away (as though putting it into words makes it permanent).

Expressing needs and feelings openly is not the total answer. We tend to lack the skills for communicating in a way that takes into consideraion the needs of both ourselves and the *receiver* and for stating the message in a way that clearly describes what is going on inside of us. The child who says "I don't know why we have to study this stupid stuff" is communicating the fact that he is upset but has not described his emotional state or why he might feel that way. He also has not considered the possible effects of the message on the teacher.

This unit is designed to provide additional experience for building both understanding and skill in communicating with children.

STRATEGIES

Verbal Communication

The following selections can provide a framework within which to discuss and practice communication skills.

A. Rogers describes the elements of interpersonal communications as he has found them in his private experiences, therapy, and encounter groups. Reuel Howe has written of the characteristics of persons who can participate in dialogue. Read and discuss the following:
   1. Rogers, Carl. *Freedom to Learn*, especially Chapter 11, Being in relationship.
   2. Howe, Reuel L. *The Miracle of Dialogue*, especially Chapter 5, The participants in dialogue.

B. Martin Buber has described the importance of establishing "I-thou" relationships. Describe times when you have known "I-it" types of conversations. Describe other instances in which you have felt an "I-thou" communication. Contrast your feelings in the two types of situations.

Nonverbal Communications

You may have had experiences in which the nonverbal message opposes the verbal. To be a facilitator of growth and learning it becomes important for you to be aware of the message that children send in nonverbal ways and be able to observe your *own* behavior sufficiently well to detect double messages, communication in which the verbal message is contradictory to the nonverbal message. If the room is arranged with all the seats facing the teacher and children must raise their hands before talking, the statement "The children are free to discuss problems with each other whenever they wish" comes through as "I know the words to say for them to sound as though I support modern ideas in education." The writings of Hall, studied in previous units, are pertinent here.

EXERCISES

A. Read and discuss: Galloway, Charles. Nonverbal communications: A needed focus. *Instructor*, 77:37-44, 1968.

B. Describe your classroom in terms of the nonverbal messages you convey to children.

C. Brainstorm ways in which you can nonverbally tell chidren:
   1. "You are a unique, valuable person."
   2. "Go away, I'm busy."
   3. "I really don't like you."
   4. "I think you are clever."

D. Discuss some of the implications of nonverbal communication you experienced in the previous unit.

Code for Effective Communication

Ginott has described some of the differences in the consequences of various ways of talking to another and has identified some of the codes for effective communication.

EXERCISES

A. Read and discuss these codes found in Ginott, Haim. *Between Teacher and Child*. Illustrate their use through examples from your own experiences.

B. In a group of three, role play the following situations. One takes the role of teacher, one of student, and one of the observer. The observer is to give feedback to the teacher on the instances in which he implemented or failed to implement Ginott's principles. Rotate the roles so that each gets a chance to be teacher.
   1. Laura (child) is sitting at her desk. Teacher: "What are you doing?"

Laura (glowering): "Leave me alone! I don't have to do anything you say!"

2. The teacher comes upon a scene outside school in which the other children are calling Mike names and telling him to go away. Mike turns around, fighting back tears, and sees the teacher. Mike (sobbing): "Nobody likes me . . . The only one that likes me is my dog . . . and he doesn't even belong to me."
3. A small group is reading a story about a family. In the story the father is an important character. Sandra has been fidgeting during the discussion and finally bursts out: "I wish *my* father would come home. He left us and won't even spend a dime to *call* us!"
4. Myra has been having trouble with math. With a glow on her face, she brings you a paper. Myra: "I finally got it! I understand it now!"

Procedures for Developing Communication

Practical suggestions for building communication in the classroom in order to *prevent* problems and in order to make the classroom more relevant to the crucial concerns of the students are described in the following references. Read and make plans for incorporating some of these procedures into your own classroom.

A. Raths, Louis E.; Harmin, Merrill; and Simon, Sidney B. *Values and Teaching.*
B. Gorman, Alfred. *Teachers and Learners: The Interactive Process in Education.*
C. Brown, George I. *Human Teaching for Human Learning.*
D. Glasser, William. *Schools Without Failure.*

Listening Skills

One of the barriers to effective communication is the habit of not listening. Sometimes, particularly to make an impression or to make a point, one becomes involved framing a reply rather than listening to what the person says. The following game will help point out this characteristic.

In a group of three choose a topic to discuss. One person is to debate the side of the argument in *favor* of the position, another is to argue *against* the position, and the third is to act as a judge and see that the one rule of the game is continuously observed. That rule is: Before a person can reply to the statement the other has just made, he must repeat as closely as possible (hopefully, verbatim) the statement the other has just made. The judge can help in the reaction session to point out the factors that enhanced the communication and those factors which inhibited communication. Select one of the following or make one of your own:

1. The neighborhood school concept is discriminatory in that neighborhoods tend to be homogeneous in race and economic levels.
2. Schools should no longer have compulsory attendance.
3. The schools in large cities should be governed by neighborhood boards of education.
4. Education today would do much better if we did away with the schools.

Unit 11

BUILDING SKILL IN TEACHING ABOUT HUMAN BEHAVIOR

OBJECTIVES

When you finish this unit, you should be able to:

1. Plan and carry out units of learning about human behavior for several age groups of children.
2. Describe some causal teaching materials on human behavior that fit into your content areas.
3. Describe some of the effects of this teaching as indicated by research findings.
4. Describe some of the problems involved in developing such causal material.

INTRODUCTION

If schools are to produce children who are mentally healthy individuals and prepared to utilize and continually develop their potential, all aspects of the school setting must be examined. We have been dealing with teacher-pupil relationships. A teacher who is a self-actualizing, concerned individual who can communicate with a child can do much to alleviate and prevent emotional and social problems. Many attempts at improving education stop there. However, the total school climate can enhance or detract from the teacher's ability to help children. A teacher may work very hard with a child to help him become less withdrawn, only to have a custodian, cafeteria worker, or principal destroy in minutes his previous efforts.

Scheduling and logistical decisions in the school were originally established for efficiency rather than for developing humanness. Children may be expected to learn some of the most basic concepts they will ever use by discovery rather than through guided learning experience.

The subsequent units in this program will treat aspects of the curriculum and school climate which influence the child's social and emotional growth. This unit will focus on the utilization of data about learning and the causal approach to behavior in the development of instructional materials. The following unit will deal with types of curricular decisions, who makes them, and methods for turning responsibility over to students. Within this framework various plans for individualizing instruction and for facilitating self-directed learning will be studied. The final unit will treat the aspects of group dynamics both in the sense of the use of small groups as an instructional strategy and as an area of study for improving intergroup relationships and skills.

Ojemann and the Preventive Psychiatry Research Program at the University of Iowa developed a program designed to teach children to take a causal approach to behavior. The group studied several aspects of the program and found in general that children *can* be taught the concepts of a causal approach, that these concepts can make a positive difference in some of their social and emotional behavior, and that significant changes required the use of causal materials in a causal climate.

The quality and quantity of available instructional materials has improved over the years, and Ojemann has moved on to a broader base of operations at the Educational Research Council of America in Cleveland.

The program in human behavior and mental health not only contains units for teaching, but also gives suggestions for incorporating the approach into a number of

subject areas. In this way the child can be given a consistent approach to the behavior that he studies.

A cursory analysis of instructional materials on the market today indicates that materials are noncausal in nature, that they take a very surface approach to behavior, seldom dealing with the emotional aspects of the situations involved. Further analysis also indicates that many materials present rigid stereotyped descriptions of characters (fat people are jolly; grandmothers are chubby and white-haired; fathers are in the home; mothers are housewives). Publishing companies have become more conscious of racial bias, but improvement is still needed to eliminate authoritarian, paternalistic attitudes often conveyed to readers and taken toward various groups. Children would find it difficult to identify with the characters who are not real people.

With the more recent emphasis on dealing with social and emotional issues in the school, the market has begun to include materials designed for moral or value education. Some of these materials encourage children to inquire into the issues and reach their own conclusions. Others come closer to indoctrination than education. The set of values they support tends to be authoritarian, elitist, and Victorian. An examination of materials is especially appropriate for social science and language arts materials.

The following selections are designed to help you examine materials in your classroom for the degree of causality that they show and to help you utilize the major concepts you have learned so far in this program in developing instructional materials to teach children about behavior.

STRATEGIES

Examining Available Materials

Children can be taught to understand more about human behavior and to take a more causal approach to the behavior of others and themselves. The Preventive Psychiatry Research Group at the University of Iowa, directed by Ralph Ojemann originally took instructional units developed by teachers in the research groups, edited them, and published them for use by other teachers. Gradually a set of principles for the development of these materials evolved. These principles are still being refined according to the theoretical framework described by Ojemann and the experiences of his colleagues and teachers who have attempted to apply a causal approach in the classroom. Materials which have been published in this program are now printed by the Educational Research Council of America and have been developed for use in kindergarten through 12th grade. More materials are available at K-6 grade levels, however, because of the emphasis on the prevention of problems. As you read these materials you may wish to concentrate on the principles and *concepts* involved and be particularly sensitive to how these materials could be modified or new materials could be developed which would be appropriate for your pupils:

1. Ojemann, Ralph, et al. *A Teaching Program in Human Behavior and Mental Health, Handbooks for Teachers.* K–6th grades. (Read particularly the section on the use of the materials.)
2. Ojemann, Ralph. *Developing a Program for Education in Human Behavior.*
3. Lakewood Public Schools, Lakewood, Ohio. *Understanding Violence and Aggression.* (Writings of pilot materials, now in progress, in conjunction with ERCA.)
4. Myers, Eddie. ed. *Drug Education Program.*

CRITERIA FOR JUDGING THE CAUSALITY OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Rate materials by judging the degree to which it meets the requirements of each of the questions below. Make plans for improving those areas in which the materials are weak, if the remainder of the criteria are met to a sufficient degree to make this worthwhile.

Process Criteria (Rate from 1 to 5 with 1 indicating "excellent.")

1 2 3 4 5 Are the goals and objectives of the materials easily understood and easily communicated?

1 2 3 4 5 Do the objectives include concern for the processes of learning, as well as for the content?

1 2 3 4 5 Are experiences included that encourage growth in attitudes, as well as in intellectual functions?

1 2 3 4 5 Are there suggestions for ways to diagnose the learner's present status?

1 2 3 4 5 Are there indications of ways in which to modify the program based on the present status of the individuals?

1 2 3 4 5 Is the learner helped to fit the present learning activities in with what he already knows and has studied?

1 2 3 4 5 Is the material appropriate for the background experiences and frame of reference of the learner?

1 2 3 4 5 Is the learner helped to understand how this study can have personal relevance to him—can he identify the topic as suited to his concerns, is his curiosity and need for competence stirred?

1 2 3 4 5 Is the learner encouraged to participate in the diagnosis and helped to plan for himself?

1 2 3 4 5 Is there opportunity for the individual to make choices between alternative methods of learning and in the logistics of how the learning will occur?

1 2 3 4 5 Are several senses brought into play in the learning activity—does he *not* just read, just write, just sit, etc.?

1 2 3 4 5 Is there a chance for the learner to manipulate materials and move around to some extent during the learning activity?

1 2 3 4 5 Does the material emphasize where to find resources and ways of learning or is it a canned presentation of someone else's distillation of facts?

1 2 3 4 5 Is there provision for frequent feedback about the quality of learning in a manner which emphasizes ways of improvement rather than threats of failure?

1 2 3 4 5 Is the individual encouraged to make frequent self checks on his progress and are sources of help indicated should he need them?

1 2 3 4 5 Do the evaluation procedures assess the attitudinal and process learnings as well as the factual information and conceptual development?

1 2 3 4 5 Does the evaluation assess the goals and objectives indicated prior to the activity, and at a level appropriate to the actual experience of the learner working with the materials?

Content Criteria (Rate from 1 to 5, with 1 indicating "excellent.")

1 2 3 4 5 Does the material teach concepts of human behavior or attitudes of causality—such as tolerance of ambiguity, careful observation, withholding judgment until facts are in, etc.?

1 2 3 4 5 Does the material search for underlying *causes* of the behavior rather than provide simplistic explanations or treat the behavior in terms of surface characteristics, such as what happened, when?

1 2 3 4 5 Is there treatment of the factors which make people of widely varying experiences, alike?

1 2 3 4 5 Is there any attempt to develop an understanding of motivating forces that people have in common?

1 2 3 4 5 Does the material consider several causes and alternatives, rather than provide pat solutions to the questions that are posed?

1 2 3 4 5 Is the learner helped to look at both sides of an issue and at each side from various viewpoints?

1 2 3 4 5 Is the learner helped to explore several alternative courses of action in solving a given problem?

1 2 3 4 5 Is the learner helped to analyze the possible consequences to the alternative course of action?

1 2 3 4 5 Is the learner helped to evaluate behavior in terms of its possible effects rather than to label the behavior according to a rule or tradition?

1 2 3 4 5 Are evaluations and decisions viewed in relation to the probability of error—is the learner given encouragement to change his mind when new data no longer support his previous decisions?

1 2 3 4 5 Is there clear indication of the limitations of the knowledge that we have or use in making decisions?

1 2 3 4 5 Is there an attempt to develop appreciation for the complexity and the resourcefulness of people in dealing with human problems?

1 2 3 4 5 Is there an attempt to develop an appreciation for the *struggles* involved in problem-solving, as well as for the discovery of solutions?

1 2 3 4 5 Does the unit or sequence of concepts *gradually* make the learner aware of his problems, or does the unit *start* with his problems (which might cause him to become defensive)?

1 2 3 4 5 Does the material help the learner distinguish factors in the situation over which he might have control—rather than encourage a passive acceptance of forces that influence his own development?

1 2 3 4 5 Does the material help to develop all sides of an issue or problem, and then leave the decision up to the learner? Does it provide for further help if the learner wants to change his mind about that decision?

(The previous questions may be especially appropriate if the material examined is in narrative form, such as stories, or in expository form, such as essays.)

Writing Causal Materials

The following selections deal with guidelines for developing instructional materials to teach children about human behavior.

Teaching the Causal Approach to Behavior in Curriculum Areas Other Than Reading [8]

To effectively teach the causal approach to behavior, modifications may be needed in all curricular areas which directly or indirectly relate to human behavior. In addition, modifications in the teacher's behavior may be required so that concepts taught in the curriculum are demonstrated and reinforced through teacher behavior. Modifications are indicated because present teaching about human behavior in our schools and society is largely noncausal in nature. The present curriculum tends to deal with behavior in terms of what happened (on the surface), when it happened, and what reactions were produced. Very few experiences are introduced to help the child learn about *why* the behavior might have come about, and how he might profit from knowledge of the effects of the behavior.

Our society tends to teach children to label behavior and to evaluate behavior (without attempting first to understand causes and effects). We tend not to teach children to think through problems for themselves, and to consider the possible alternatives and their possible effects. We tend to teach children what to do rather than to help them understand why some ways of behaving are more approved than others.

Any area of study which treats human behavior either directly as a topic of study, or indirectly as a vehicle for teaching skills and concepts, can be modified to reinforce the concepts taught about behavior. These modifications can be planned so that the mental health goals are reached as other skills and concepts are also learned. For example, a unit in social science may look for clues in history on the question of whether working together helps people satisfy their needs more readily than when they depend only on themselves. A reading story may illustrate

8. The book, *Learning About Behavior*, contains stories to be read by young children who are reading at about a first or second grade level. The stories were to be followed by a discussion. The same principles can be applied to discussions at other grade levels and in other subjects. These suggestions were based on ideas included in the handbooks of the series, *A Teaching Program in Human Behavior and Mental Health*, by Ralph Ojemann and associates.

some of the needs people have. Math units may help the child understand that he makes decisions on the basis of probability. Science units may teach the interdependence of certain types of living organisms. The approach taken in all these areas might be the asking for causes, for some possible effects of various changes, and for the reliability and accuracy of the information.

The teacher's behavior provides a very important source for learning the causal approach. Since behavioral changes require emotional as well as intellectual changes, children can more readily learn the causal approach if they live in an environment in which this approach is taken to their own behavior. They can then experience the differences between how it feels to live in a causal vs. a noncausal environment. It is quite likely that the home environment and much of the social evironment of these children tends toward the noncausal. Therefore, it is important for the school to supply the example of a causal environment.

The development of a causal approach to behavior may take time and special effort on the part of the teacher. This is because the teacher, as well as other adults, has grown up in a society which largely teaches a noncausal approach. However, the teacher probably has acquired some of the beginnings of a scientific approach toward children's behavior through courses in child and adolescent behavior and development.

It has been found that many teachers experience guilt feelings when they review their behavior toward pupils in the past. This awareness of a better way of relating to children can be a healthy sign of growth—*if* the teacher realizes that nothing can be done about the past behavior and uses this awareness of mistakes to plan future behavior.

In brief, the teacher who is concerned about the way in which his behavior illustrates the causal concepts: (a) shows his concern for understanding *why* children behave as they do (in addition to *what* they do), (b) is willing to listen to children's expressions of emotions even though they may not always be pleasant, (c) helps pupils think through *for themselves* some of the alternatives and the effects of each alternative way of handling a problem, (d) provides for children's basic needs in planning learning programs, (e) does not stereotype or judge behavior on its symptom level (goes deeper to gain an understanding before making a judgment), (f) uses discipline measures as a first-aid procedure in emergency situations but follows through to redirect the behavior and prevent its recurrence.

Concepts and Goals of the Program

Goals of the program were selected after careful study of the factors which tend to interfere with learning in school, with effective emotional functioning, and with creative social relationships. Major concepts and attitudes which seem necessary to the attainment of these goals are included in the following list. Of course, the attainment of the goals involves an incorporation of these concepts and their implications into the person's own behavior.

1. Behavior has both causes and effects.
2. Causes of behavior are complex and interacting. Thus, it is difficult to make an accurate judgment about the behavior without some understanding of causes of the particular behavior in question.
3. Human beings have the same basic motivating forces. They have each learned many different ways of satisfying these motivating forces.
4. Motivating forces include the physical needs as well as the social and emotional needs, such as a feeling of security, love and belonging, worth, ability to contribute, self-respect, independence, and having the opportunity to develop and utilize one's unique potential.
5. There are a number of different ways in which motivating forces can be satisfied. These ways each have effects on oneself and on others. These effects are both long term and short term.
6. Effective decisions can be made best if

the alternatives and their effects are considered before a decision is reached.

7. One often has to make decisions based on incomplete data. Judgments and decisions can be considered in terms of the *probability* of their being correct. As new information becomes available the decisions or judgments can be reevaluated.
8. As a person learns more about behavior, its causes and effects, he can begin to make decisions that have a higher degree of likelihood for success.

Suggestions for Guiding the Discussion

Although the stories in this series will probably be used as supplementary readers, discussion questions have been included in each story, (a) to focus the child's attention on the behavior of the story character, and (b) to help him learn more about use of the causal approach toward behavior. The teacher may wish to have all children participate in the discussions about behavior. In this case, children who have read the story may report to other children about the main ideas in the story. Because of the general nature of the questions, children can participate in the discussion with this minimum knowledge about the story itself.

Some major principles that may lead to more productive discussions have been gleaned from teachers' experiences in using these types of questions. The questions included in the stories are only the initial questions one might ask. Therefore, these principles are included to help you follow through and utilize children's responses to advantage.

1. One of the major factors which influences the productivity of a discussion is knowledge of the objectives of the discussion. A list of objectives for each story is included in this guide. If you think through the objectives carefully *before* the discussion period, you should find your choice of followup questions easier.
2. In this type of discussion there are no right and wrong answers. Thus, even the most "far-out" answer can be treated with respect. You may wish to ask the children to decide on which of two answers is most *likely* and under what conditions each answer might be true. You might discourage children's scoffing at some response by indicating a condition under which an unlikely situation *could* occur.
3. Some answers reflect thinking about *basic* causes and effects and others seem to reflect a confusion between causes and symptoms, or between short- and long-term effects. You may need to keep questioning "why" or keep asking "and *then* what might happen" to help the children reach a deeper level of thinking. For example, in the story, "Wee Winnie" this question is asked: "Why do you think Winnie spent all her time picking up peanuts instead of trying to learn her act?" You may find children saying, "Because she liked to." You may need to follow with "Why do you think she liked to?" and continue until children show that they are considering the basic causes of the behavior and the ways in which Wee Winnie was using defensive methods of handling her problem.
4. The questions are carefully worded to avoid stereotyping and to avoid "black and white" classification. For this reason, questions are worded "How *might* . . . feel?" "What *might* . . .?" or "What do you think?" In this way a careful distinction is made between what are data and what are assumpsumptions. It is hoped that children will become aware of the fact that one can never know how another person thinks or feels. It is hoped that children will begin to appreciate the complexity of life and to see that there are a number of *possible* causes and effects. In this way the child can be prepared for change and unpredictability.

Whenever children respond to questions about causes of behavior with a label such as "Because she is an only child" or "Because he is an Indian," you may need further questioning to help children see that people are *all* different from any stereotypic description.

For example, in the story "Larry's Big Day," this question is asked: "Why do *you* think Larry cried?" A child might respond, "He's a big crybaby." You may need to ask again why might he cry a great deal, or (if it is a child who frequently uses labels such as this) you may want to ask him questions that help him see that all people cry at times and are afraid at times. Then you may ask gently probing questions to lead the class away from the label and and toward the *individual* behavior of Larry.

5. Because behavior is complex and interacting, all questions in this series ask for causes and effects. If children give one cause or one effect, continue questioning until more possibilities are explored. It is especially important to continue questioning, even if the first response is quite insightful. Your response to contributions may indicate approval of responses which indicate a fair amount of thought, but, in general, more responses tend to come from children when fairly noncommittal answers such as "Could be," "That's possible," "Perhaps," etc. are used instead of "That is right," or "That is wrong." We do not presently know enough about human behavior to definitely state whether or not something is right or wrong. We also wish to prepare children for a society in which today's knowledge may be disproven tomorrow.
6. In order to build a background of *concepts* and attitudes about behavior, experiences have been introduced which *start away* from the child. Experience has shown that children become defensive when application of their own behavior is made too quickly. These defensive reactions tend to interfere with effective learning. Therefore, the focus of the questions is on the behavior of the story characters. You may find it wise to avoid the temptation of asking "Have you ever seen anyone act like that?" or "Is that like Johnny acted yesterday?" etc.

   Children may supply answers such as "Janie's fat and forgetful like that," or "Henry is a fraidy-cat, too." You will need to use discretion in handling these answers in a way that will lead to the most fruitful learnings. Sometimes it may be best to ignore the comment and talk with the child alone later. You may wish to say something such as "Many people are like that," or "I wonder *why* someone might be a crybaby" or "What do you mean when you call someone a fraidy-cat?" How does he act? Do you know anyone who is not afraid some of the time? After a background has been built you may decide that the class is ready to talk about *real* behaviors and problems. Even at this point you will need to exercise care in choosing, at first, problems which are less likely to be highly toned with emotion. Then the problems that are more disturbing may be gradually introduced.
7. In some cases, the children may not respond to the question. If rephrasing or breaking the question into simpler parts does not help, you may indicate a possible answer and ask them to think about it for awhile. You can then come back to the question in a few days if a natural situation arises in which the question is pertinent. If not, you may be satisfied with just posing the question. Children frequently like to know that some questions about human behavior are even hard for adults and that we really do not have all the answers at present.

8. Children frequently give responses that seem to lead away from the objective or toward possible misunderstanding. You may be able gradually to get the class to decide whether the response is pertinent or if they can supply a better answer. It is essential, however, that neither the teacher nor the class do so in a manner that indicates derision or punishment. Discussions flow more freely in an atmosphere in which respect is shown for all the responses, even while redirecting the discussion to a more fruitful avenue. The development of this emotional climate will take some time and is one of the goals of the program. It also requires skill and sensitivity to tone of voice and facial cues, as well as to the actual words that are used.
9. The questions have been placed *before* the section of the story to which they pertain. The purpose of this procedure is to focus children's attention on behavior as they read.
10. Questions which ask for an opinion are followed by a question which asks for the reasons behind that opinion. Although this question is usually stated "Why do you think so?" the questions should also be applied when there is disagreement. If children express different opinions, try to help them understand some of the positive as well as negative effects of disagreement.
11. To encourage all children to participate you may use several techniques. You may say such things as "On the next question will *each* of you be ready to give an idea. As soon as I have read the question, and you have an idea, raise your hand." Then you may say, "Janie, your hand isn't raised. Would it help if I read the question again?" Or you may try, "Billy, would you like to add an idea or to disagree with Jim's answer?"
12. The goals of the program include the prevention of prejudice and premature evaluation of behavior. Therefore, it is not helpful to label behavior as "good," "bad," "nice," "not nice," etc. until after some of the causes and effects are understood. Even a behavior such as stealing can be considered in terms of causes and other possible behavior which might satisfy the causal conditions. The effects of this behavior vs. its alternatives can then be considered before an evaluation is reached.
13. You may wish to restate, at the end of a few of the discussion sessions, some of the major ideas that have been elaborated and the major objectives of the discussion. This can help the children recognize how several stories have the same intent and can consolidate the ideas in a form that is more readily remembered.

Your Approach

Develop an instructional unit and evaluate it against the criteria studied previously. Teach the unit to a small group of children; tape record the activity. In a small group of colleagues, discuss your unit and the students' reactions. Identify ways to improve the unit.

Other Approaches

Several authors have suggested units of study or concepts and processes that they believe children should learn.

A. Expand, modify, and otherwise improve the list of criteria for judging the causality of a unit of study.
B. Where applicable, apply these criteria to the suggestions given by Raths, Louis E.; Harmin, Merrill; and Simon, Sidney B. *Values and Teaching.*
C. Professional journals often have descriptions of units of study that teachers have developed. Use the criteria to examine these suggestions. (Herbert Kohl wrote a series for *Grade Teacher,* 1970.)

Unit 12

SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING

OBJECTIVES

This unit should help one to:

1. State reasons for adopting self-directed learning as a goal.
2. Identify sources of conflict one might hold concerning the ability to encourage and provide for self-directed learning.
3. Describe characteristics of pupils around which instruction might be individualized.
4. Identify the types of individualization previously incorporated in one's own teaching and develop a plan for expanding this approach.
5. Contrast individualized instruction with self-directed learning.

INTRODUCTION

This unit deals with classroom approaches that attempt to be flexible and to support the learner in gaining a sense of control over his own learning. These include individualized instruction, independent study, and self-directed learning as exemplified by the open classroom or integrated day or English Infant School methods. Project G.O.O.D. (Guiding One's Own Development) will be considered as a strategy for moving from individualized instruction to self-directed learning. These approaches differ in terms of who makes the curricular decisions of purpose, strategy, logistics, and evaluation.

Instruction can be individualized and the teacher may make all curricular decisions. The teacher may move toward self-directed study by turning over some of the decisions to the learner. The child may be assigned to do a certain report and may plan his own use of time, and make other logistical decisions about his study within the limits specified by the teacher. The teacher may reserve the right to make purpose decisions and evaluation decisions. The strategies and logistics within the framework of the established purposes can then be decided by the child.

The self-directed model that is exemplified by the English Infant School and the open classroom turns over most of the decisions to the learner. The teacher makes decisions as to which purposes are valuable and works at guiding children toward these purposes. Strategy decisions about what centers should be available to stimulate the learner's interests so that he may achieve worthwhile purposes are also made by the teacher. Within these limits, the child is encouraged to contribute and make decisions about *what else* he would like to achieve.

The method for reaching self-directed learning proposed in Project G.O.O.D. is a plan to gradually and systematically turn over more and more of the decisionmaking to the learner. The plan also systematically encourages the learner to discuss and examine his own ideas and attitudes, regarding learning—thus developing the skills that form the basis of decisionmaking.

With Project G.O.O.D., the purpose and evaluation decisionmaking is not necessarily carried out by the teacher, although it often is. The plan represents a bridge between individually prescribed instruction and completely self-directed learning. Some teachers want to move rapidly and adopt the English Infant School quickly; others are more comfortable with slowly making the transition;

and still others give *children* the option as to how much teacher direction they want. The children are afforded the right to change their minds when they experience a need for more or less help from the teacher. Thus, some children direct their own learning while others within the same classroom follow teacher-directed plans.

If the schools are to produce mentally healthy adults, the primary goal of the school is to produce young adults who love learning and see education as a means of reaching their goals. The students must know how to learn and be motivated when new skills and knowledge are required. Reaching this goal requires a series of graduated tasks, just as reaching competency in math requires graduated problems. Thus the task is not to shelter the child or rid his environment of problems—but to graduate the problems a child faces so that he develops the skills to handle increasingly complex problems and responsibilities. Finally, the goal is to shift responsibility from the teacher to the learner. Schools now tend to do the opposite. Considerably more choice of learning tasks and independent work is given a child in preschool and kindergarten than in the 12th grade.

When students are given choice and independent study opportunities, they often do not have the background for taking advantage of increased freedom. As pupils become more competent in guiding their own development, the work of the teacher becomes less of a taskmaster and disciplinarian and more of a *guide*. Pupils can not only make more decisions, they can take the responsibility for keeping the teacher informed about what they need to know, what is interferring with learning, and when they are having difficulty.

Teachers have wide individual differences. They vary in their ability to encourage self-directed learning and in the degree of comfort that they feel in relinquishing their control over the classroom. Although self-direction may be the goal, many teachers find themselves unable to start there but must start at various approximations of this goal.

The selections in this unit proceed from individualized instruction which is primarily teacher controlled to self-directed learning in which the teacher contributes and makes decisions but is not directly "in charge." Project G.O.O.D. is presented as a means of moving from one approach to the other.

STRATEGIES

Individualized Instruction

The literature presents various rationales and recommendations for individualizing instruction. As one begins to understand learning processes and to take a causal approach to behavior, it may become more difficult to justify teaching the class as a total group for a major portion of the time. Individualization is a difficult task for a teacher who has traditionally been in control of the curricular decisions and enjoys the power of this position. The logistical problems may become great if there are not enough materials and equipment available for the pupil to work on his own. However, teachers do cope with these logistical problems and indications are that these are not major problems.

Perhaps the biggest barrier to individualization is the need of the teacher to have a sense of control over the students and over what is happening in the classroom. Regardless of how rationally committed to individualization that one may be, it can be difficult to process the stimuli coming from 30 children, working at different tasks and at different places within the same tasks. This is an area which one needs to examine carefully.

The teacher's need for control should not be given priority over the children's need for a sense of control over their own learning, but some teachers do try to let go and then pull back in a punitive fashion when the procedures do not run smoothly. Other teachers have openly shared their feelings with the students and encouraged students to explore how they feel, also. The problem then became one of how they could help each other.

There are any number of possible references on individualizing instruction. The 1964 yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development was devoted to individualizing instruction. In practice, most instruction that takes place is prescribed by the teacher and is individualized to suit the *pace* of learning.

CHARACTERISTICS OF INDIVIDUALS TO CONSIDER IN INDIVIDUALIZING INSTRUCTION[1]

This paper is a brief summary of some of the characteristics that seem to influence learning. When someone says that he is individualizing instruction, the question often arises as to just which characteristics of the individual have been considered and just which dimensions of the instructional act have been changed. If the person goes even further to say that he is utilizing self-directed learning approaches, the question of degree then arises—who makes the decisions? in what areas are the learners making choices? to what extent are the available choices limited by the teacher and the school?

Characteristics of individuals that influence their learning needs and abilities are many. The discussion that follows by no means exhausts the list of possible traits. However, as a teacher begins to plan learning activities to suit some of these characteristics, it is likely that he/she will become sensitive to other ways in which students differ.

Most plans for individualized instruction take into consideration differences in *pace* of learning. Some children learn rapidly, while others need more time to reach the same level of mastery. Many plans also include individualization according to children's past *achievements*, and some plans group the children in several subject areas according to their achievement in only one area. Of course, some pupils vary greatly in achievement in different areas of study. *Interest* in a topic is another pupil characteristic that should be considered when planning for individual instruction.

Characteristics less often considered include patterns of reaction to new experiences, level of aspiration, and self-concept. These characteristics may be highly related in a pupil, but some people also have unique combinations of these factors which may not fit the expected pattern. Some people react to new experience with a sense of challenge and an active attempt to explore the problem. Others may be overwhelmed and, in spite of past history of success in learning, may need help and reassurance of their ability to handle the task. Of course, others have experienced so much failure in the past that new experiences are greeted with a sense of dread. The latter two types may need some instruction which breaks the larger task into smaller "chunks" so they are not overwhelmed by the entire assignment, but can have a sense of success as they achieve, step after step along the way. Some children and adults expect a great deal of themselves—sometimes more than they, or maybe any human being, can accomplish. In self-directed learning tasks, they may take on a much larger project than they can hope to finish. Regardless of the praise or other rewards they may receive for their achievement, they may feel a sense of failure since they did not live up to their own level of expectation. The opposite extreme, where pupils sometimes expect to fail, also requires assistance. Such pupils take on very little work in order to minimize the risk of failure and leave open the face-saving device of saying they could have done more if they had tried. These pupils may see school as something to be endured until they can get on with the business of living. They may have learned that other people expect little of them, and

[1] By Karen Todd, Ph.D., 1970.

thus they are living up to expectation. Or a low aspiration may be a defensive reaction to pressure or to the realization that a great deal is expected of those who have high achievement records. There is evidence that people work toward a consistent self-concept —that is, they work to achieve the behavior that they expect of themselves. Thus, poor performance may be rewarding to those who expect poor performance of themselves.

Physical differences can also be important in influencing learning. Some people have a much higher *drive for activity* than others. Individualizing instruction in some cases may mean providing for pupils' moving around and for release of physical energy during the learning activity. Other children may work best at relatively sedentary activities for large blocks of time. People seem to vary widely in *reaction time*. Some children seldom get a chance to answer questions in a group discussion because the time required for them to process the information and respond is greater than the time the group is able to wait. Children with quick reaction times tend to have their hands up or to supply the answer for the slower ones. Studies indicate that many of these children do quite well with questions that are recorded so that they can use ample time to process the information before coming up with the answer. Some of these children develop the strategy of saying the first response that pops into their heads.

Sex is another individual difference which may influence learning. Whether the differences are because of genetic factors or because of socialization, there tend to be differences between boys and girls that influence learning in the school. Girls tend to respond to problems in terms of relationships, whereas boys tend to deal with functions and uses. Of course, there is a wider range of individual differences within each sex group than there is between the groups. Physical differences of stamina, ability to attend to detail, ability to sit still, ability to show the behavior expected in a "feminized" school, etc.—all are factors that may differ with sex and should be considered when providing for individual differences.

Interest in the opposite sex develops at different rates in pupils and may be shown in a variety of ways. Learning activities may be adapted so that boys and girls are separated or so that boys and girls may be teamed—depending on whether the individual needs practice in building boy-girl communication or whether he/she needs to be protected from the stimulation and the role-playing that may serve as a distraction to learning.

Of course, differences related to *neurological functioning* and perceptual abilities influence learning. Some children may need to work in areas in which distractions to learning are screened out as much as possible. Others have a high tolerance for confusion and noise. Time awareness, space perception, ability to sequence ideas, motor coordination are often factors which may have a psychological root and which may influence learning.

Some pupils work differently because the *link between their behavior and its consequences* has been weakened or lost. Reactions to their behavior may not have been consistent enough so that they are convinced that some of their behaviors bring approval while others result in disapproval. These children are not able to engage in sustained effort over a long period of time. Some children cannot work well on their own because they have no real assurance that their efforts will bring pleasurable results. For such children, providing for more immediate feedback or supplying approval much more quickly may be needed.

Cognitive style or patterns of problem-solving also influence learning. Some people react conservatively, while others plunge into a problem. Some seem to explore possibilities from a pivotal point or to make up their minds and then use data to test their decisions. Others scan many possibilities and attack problems from many different angles before reaching even tentative conclusions. Although most pupils have some degree of creativity, some attack problems in a thoroughly unique, unconventional manner. Although teachers often say they want to

reward creativity, they may find it trying when this uniqueness disrupts others or when a child seldom reaches the conventional or expected conclusion. Sometimes the creative learner is highly resistant to the plans or the materials that are provided. He may need to "discover the universe" for himself rather than take someone's word for it.

The above discussion only begins to tap the areas of difference that influence learning in the classroom. As the pupil is helped to gain more understanding of himself, he may be able to contribute to the list of differences that are important for him and may begin to help choose and plan learning activities that are best suited to him.

HIGHLIGHTS OF A SIXTH GRADE CLASS [10]

Probably one of the most significant aspects of that school year was the manner in which it began, for it didn't have a typical beginning the week before school—preparing bulletin boards and readying the room for the students. It didn't even have its beginning on the first day of school when the children came pouring into their new classroom. Rather, it had its real beginning weeks before school opened in a very quiet place in my own home. It was necessary for me to reflect on all that I had experienced and learned during the summer in light of my previous knowledge gained by working with children and by just being with many different kinds of people over the years. Though our studies had included many aspects of human behavior, I was particularly impressed with the causal approach to behavior. I liked the logic of it, the concreteness, and practicality of it. It made sense. It also brought to my attention an area of my teaching where I had been inconsistent, often frustrated, and frequently discouraged. I felt the causal approach to behavior provided me with a systematic method of understanding, observing, and even changing certain kinds of behavior in myself as well as in the students.

I also found the emphasis on describing goals in a specific way to be quite helpful. For instance, I knew the kind of environment I wished to create in my classroom. Never before, however, had I expressed it in words. This was my first attempt to do just that:

"I wish to develop a classroom environment which will enable the students to:

1. become aware of their worth as individuals.
2. feel secure enough among their classmates and teachers to ask questions, express opinions, hopes, and doubts without fear of ridicule.
3. feel and demonstrate an understanding and responsibility for their own behavior.
4. be able to evaluate their own work, locating errors and seeking ways to correct them.
5. grow in their ability to work alone and in groups with a minimum dependency on their teacher.
6. have a part in the daily as well as long-range planning of their classroom studies and activities.
7. discover for themselves as much knowledge in the various subjects as possible."

A copy of these environmental goals was put in a prominent place in my planning book so that I could refer to them frequently. I had two reasons for doing this. The first one was to enable me to build all academic goals around them. The second one was that past experience had taught me that as the school year progresses there is a growing tendency by the teacher to begin taking short cuts to conserve time and insure "covering" all the material. When this happens, students' questions are often answered arbitrarily or totally ignored, unimaginative assignments are given automatically, grades distributed without

10. Contributed by Betty Dayes, Rocky River Schools, Rocky River, Ohio, 1967.

explanation, and a kind of dull boredom settles over the classroom. It is this tendency, I believe, which is responsible for transforming the good intentions of September into the cold realities of February. It is about this time when the highlight of the week occurs on Friday at 3:30 and vacation time becomes the only visible means of escape for all concerned. I fervently hoped that my recently acquired knowledge of new teaching techniques and human behavior would prevent this dreadful midyear slump!

I was strongly tempted to put all that I had learned into practice immediately; to greet my class on the first day announcing all the things I planned and hoped for during the coming year. I resisted the temptation. Instead, I chose to begin the year in a rather traditional, structured manner, for many of my students had come from this type of situation. I believed they might feel more secure this way. During the following few weeks, I practiced (and it wasn't easy) answering students' questions in the following ways: "What do you think about it?" or "Where do you think you might find the answer to your question?" or "Perhaps someone in the class has some ideas on the subject." I even learned to say with honesty and without embarrassment, "I don't know." At this time I also did a lot of listening and observing. I jotted down impressions, questions, observations on file cards kept in a file box on my desk. There was a card for each student, and they were alphabetized.

I used current event discussions to teach the differences between relevant and irrelevant information, as well as the differences between fact and opinion. Together we worked on ways to express our disagreements with each other honestly but with kindness and respect for each others' feelings and view points. At times we evaluated our discussions. More and more the class demonstrated their awareness of the ingredients necessary for fruitful and interesting discussions. Though this sometimes seemed time consuming, it proved otherwise. I had fewer arguments to settle during small group activities than in previous years.

When problems of a general nature arose in the class, I shared them with the students and we practiced thinking through them to find various solutions, considering, of course, the consequences both immediate and long range. An example of a problem I observed involved the confusion and time loss in transition periods between two activities. Since I knew the problem was not due to long periods of inactivity or undue restraints on talking, I believed the major cause was due to a simple unawareness of the situation. I had observed that 10 to 15 minutes several times a day were lost during these transitions. I shared my observations with the class and asked for discussions. There were some good suggestions made, but David, the scientifically minded student, came up with the one that everyone wanted to try. He had proposed an experiment. Everyone was to get out some books and paper. Some students were asked to work at various interest centers in the room. At a given signal all were asked to put their materials away. David was the time keeper. In exactly 1 minute everyone had accomplished the task and sat waiting for the results. The time was announced and David asked the class for their observations or opinions. Here are some of their comments:

1. It was too noisy.
2. Some kids ran to their seats, bumping into desks, and causing books and paper to fall.
3. Papers were crumpled in the rush to put them away.
4. Desk lids were slammed in the rush.

David concluded that though they had shown a big improvement in their time, they had increased the noise and confusion. He asked them to try again. This time he made the following suggestions:

1. Don't run to your seats.
2. Don't rush.
3. If you're going to talk, keep it down.

This time the experiment took 2 minutes, it was orderly, and the class felt pleased about it. They estimated the amount of time they would save each day and realized they could

have more time to complete their work. One of the girls suggested that I read their story to them in the morning as well as at the regularly scheduled time in the afternoon. I agreed, though it wasn't long before they began to want the time to work on various projects they had underway. There were, as you might expect, relapses, and the newly gained free time was temporarily lost. Usually, however, a simple glance toward the clock was the only reminder necessary to achieve order in those periods of transition. Though this procedure had taken a considerable amount of time, it proved to be more effective and lasting than my long lectures and threats of previous years. Here, I thought, was a good example of weighing immediate and long-range consequences: My lectures had resulted in immediate improvement, but were not lasting.

During the weeks of large group activities the children were given many opportunities to write about themselves, their interests, their homes, etc. Examples of some of the topics of these papers are included in this report. I kept all of these papers in individual folders marked and *kept* confidential.

As more and more of the planning and room responsibilities were felt and accepted by the class, they requested a special time to set aside for talking things over. They established a class meeting which was held on Friday afternoons. They elected officers, rotating them frequently to give everyone a chance to participate. They chose to use parliamentary procedure. The first president, after studying a handbook, took on the responsibility for teaching the class the correct procedure. I was simply a member of the class and followed the rules just as everyone else. How quickly they learned! They decided that items to be discussed should be given to the president early in the week so that he could plan the agenda. Only things important to the whole class were accepted. Personal problems were directed to me. I took care of them during the student conference periods. Since so many of the activities were student directed, there was more time for me to work with individuals. During many of the small group activities I was free to set up conference schedules. Students signed up for them when they chose. They arranged a corner of the room for these conferences to insure a maximum of privacy. It was amazing to me to see how they respected those times when I was conferring with one of their classmates. There was no stigma attached to the conferences. The students came to their with their folders which included various graphs and charts showing what they had been working on and where they were having difficulties. Sometimes they talked of personal problems involving their family or friends. Sometimes they shared disappointments and often they shared their triumphs. During these times I had many opportunities to teach the causal approach to behavior. They learned slowly but surely to consider alternative ways to achieve their goals. Always they left the conference with reassurance and a plan of some kind. I prepared for the conference by studying the student's records, my file box of observations, and their confidential writing papers. I kept a record of their requests and saw that they were carried out as soon as possible. Just as my environmental goals had become central in my planning, so these conferences became central to my work with the students. Now and then I would have to remind some of the students to make appointments, but not often. Some required a very short time, others longer. These individual conferences seemed to make a great difference in the general class behavior. Because this sounds so simple and so free from any snags, let me make it perfectly clear that neither was the case. There were times when I longed for the "good old days"; when most everyone was doing the same things and I simply marked papers as a matter of course. Never had I become so involved with a class. But truly never before had I looked forward so to each day. The enthusiasm of the class continued. Every day was different. Every day was a challenge for all of us.

In reading we sometimes used paper-back "whole books," and grouped according to interests rather than ability. The groups conducted their own discussions. In social

studies we grouped sometimes by individual choice, sometimes by drawing names, sometimes according to interests. The class devised a way to have their reports scored and and also a way to score their ability to work on a committee. In science those who wished, helped plan appropriate experiments and worked with me to select areas of study. We used various television programs—sometimes just the boys watched, particularly when biographies of famous athletes were presented, and sometimes just the girls watched. A group who felt inadequate in science watched a science program that helped them. In math, answers were posted in the back of the room so that students could correct their own papers as quickly as possible. Some chose *not* to be part of the group who were receiving introductory help for a new unit. Those who wished to tackle a new skill on their own were permitted to work by themselves, and later seek help in groups or from friends. Now and then I shared my teaching book with the better students and they read the instructions for the teacher. Math proved to be one of their favorite subjects and one in which they made the greatest improvement. One of the amusing memories I have of math class took place when I was working with a little boy who was having difficulty in working a problem involving negative numbers. He was trying so hard. So was I. Suddenly I realized neither of us was making any progress. I smiled at him and said, "Mark, you're listening so carefully and I'm not making it all clear to you, am I?" He hesitated, and replied that I was making it as clear as mud! We both began to laugh. I asked him if he had any idea what we could do about our dilemma. He suggested we ask the class, so we did. Mark told them the story. Soon there were volunteers who were sure they could explain it. The emphasis now was on the explanation and the pressure was off Mark. Several volunteered and failed. Bob strolled up to the board, began talking to Mark and saying something like this, "Why don't you look at that problem in a different way? I did and it helped me." He rephrased the whole thing simply and directly. When he finished, a slow smile appeared on Mark's face. "I've got it!" The whole class including the teacher applauded. Bob continued to work with Mark until he had done several of the problems. Later, Bob told me how "neat" it was to be able to really teach somebody something. I smiled because I *myself* had discovered a little more about teaching that day!

Since the school in which I am teaching is located in a suburb where there are not large numbers of various ethnic groups, I chose the stories to be read orally to the class with this in mind. These stories were well written and allowed all of us to relate to various nationalities and races, to understand some of their history, their problems, and achievements. It was interesting to me to discover that some of the students who had demonstrated a lack of pride in their own cultural heritage such as Polish, Italian, Greek, and Jewish, began to bring items from home which were exemplary of these different cultures. Much to my surprise I discovered some of the students had a knowledge of the various languages as well! In this report I've included some of the books I read to the students.

There were many forms of feedback I received during the year to indicate to me that, although I had a long way to go in successfully implementing the many things I had learned, I was truly on the right track. This feedback came to me in my student conferences, parent conferences, and regular evaluations from my principal. I also studied achievement scores and noted interesting and sometimes dramatic results. There were about four children, who previously had been considered "problems," who blossomed during this year. Their stories, I believe, make all the effort of that year worthwhile.

Of all the many incidents I observed during the year which demonstrated to me that my class truly was growing toward the direction outlined in my initial environmental objectives, perhaps the events of our last day together best reflect this:

The P.T.A. prepared its annual recognition luncheon for all of the sixth grade classes of our school. There were three. Each student sat with his own class. Teachers, including

such special teachers of art, music, and orchestra, along with the principal and superintendent of schools sat at the head table. It was a happy occasion and the students were quite excited and in high spirits. There was a lull after the luncheon when one of the sixth grade classes discovered they could crush their paper cups and create a loud popping sound. They also discovered that it made most of their classmates laugh, and I'm quite sure they sensed the embarrassment of the faculty. Soon most of the students at that table joined in. The other sixth grade class took up their cups, and now all that was left to enter in the fun was Mrs. Daye's class. Many thoughts went through my mind as I watched this scene. What would my class do? Would all of the experiences of individual responsibilities, discussions on behavior, etc., really make a difference in a situation like this? Perhaps it was wrong to even hope that it might. After all, wasn't this an unusual occasion, and wasn't there a perfectly understandable reason for their exuberance? I masked all expression from my face, and looked over my class. I did not want to give them any "school-teacher look." I *had* to know what they would do on their own. This knowledge was more important to me than anything else at this moment. They all were glancing at each other with concerned expressions. Slowly one of the quieter boys in our class picked up his paper cup. Everyone of his classmates was looking at him. Quietly one of the usual troublemakers of the class stood up, walked over to Jim, whispered something to him. Jim hesitated, then slowly placed the paper cup on the table, looked up, and saw the smiles of everyone of his classmates directed toward him. Some who sat near Bill, the former troublemaker of the class, patted his back and shook his hand. Bill looked toward me with his impish smile. Soon everyone in the class was smiling at me. I returned the broadest smile I possessed, nodded to them and though we were not sitting near enough for me to speak to them, I did not feel words were necessary. There was complete understanding and appreciation in every pair of eyes and every smile. Perhaps such a seemingly insignificant incident appears foolish to the reader, but to me it was the most moving experience I have ever felt in my many years of teaching.

Examine your teaching in the past. Cite some instances in which you individualized instruction. Which characteristics do you believe would most easily match your abilities to individualize? Develop a plan to change your approach this year to include individualization around these characteristics. Talk over your responses with a partner.

Project G.O.O.D.

The plan developed and called Project G.O.O.D. (Guiding One's Own Development) was intended as strategy for moving from the usual situation to one in which students make the majority of decisions. This assumes as a prior condition a climate in which the child becomes committed to the importance of learning activities.

EDUCATION IN HUMAN BEHAVIOR AND POTENTIAL: A PLAN FOR HELPING PUPILS LEARN TO TAKE RESPONSIBILITY FOR THEIR OWN LEARNING[11]

PART I: RATIONALE

A person close to education today hardly needs reminding of the rapidity with which change is occurring. In a society that changes as rapidly as ours, it has become even more important to evaluate programs on the basis of whether they are likely to guide learners in the development of skills, attitudes, and concepts necessary for their continued learning

11. By Karen Pritchett (Todd). Written at the Educational Research Council of America, Cleveland, Ohio, 1967.

throughout adulthood. The task of providing experiences suited to each learner's needs becomes more difficult as the number of pupils increases and as the body of knowledge multiplies.

Giving children opportunities to guide their *own* development and to contribute in planning and evaluating their own learning appears to be a constructive plan for three major reasons. First, the learner is provided with practice in learning on his own and can be helped to develop in his ability to guide his own growth in the future. Second, the pupil's active participation in deciding, executing, and evaluating his learning should increase the effectiveness of his learning experience. Pupils often seem to lack a sense of personal involvement when they are carrying out learning tasks that have been decided by someone else and will be evaluated by someone else. Third, the learner possesses data about interests, problems, attitudes, etc., that can contribute to more effective selection of learning experiences. If each learner begins to take the responsibility for supplying some of this data to the teacher, a more effective match between the learner's needs and the learning task may be achieved.

Experience with independent study indicates that the process of learning to guide one's own learning and development requires more than just an opportunity to carry out independent learning projects. The following conditions would be helpful: (a) motivation which comes from understanding objectives and how the learning tasks can be significant to the learner himself; (b) an understanding of the purpose of the school, learning objectives, and the role of the teacher as a guide (rather than only a source of discipline and correction); (c) ability to make and carry out plans for changing behaviors that interfere with effective learning; (d) skill in finding and using resource materials, in planning, and in evaluating one's own work; (e) a climate for learning which adequately provides for the learner's needs; and (f) opportunity to learn on one's own and to profit from mistakes and successes. A plan which includes provisions for these experiences has been developed. The plan is called Project G.O.O.D. (Guiding One's Own Development).

This program of experiences has been planned to start in the kindergarten and continue throughout high school. Experiences are sequential so that the pupil may begin to develop necessary skills and attitudes and may practice the use of these abilities in independent learning projects within the scope of his ability to handle. Gradually the responsibility for decisionmaking and for planning and evaluating learning can be shifted to the pupil. The teacher's role gradually becomes one of a resource person and a person to interpret the objectives society believes to be important.

Learning projects may be carried out individually or in a group, depending on the objectives of the learning and the nature of the task. While in group work, each member may increasingly take responsibility for evaluating and improving the effectiveness of his contribution to the group.

Project G.O.O.D. has been implemented in the intermediate elementary grades and is being tested by several schools which are members of the Educational Research Council of America. This paper describes in detail some of the objectives of the program and the experiences provided.

PART II: METHOD

Pretesting and Introduction

Pretests, administered before a learning unit, can be helpful in choosing significant learning experiences and in measuring the growth which takes place. Pretests in Project G.O.O.D. are designed to measure the existing attitudes and ideas about the importance of learning, the existing social climate, and the present personality characteristics which seem to be associated with independent learning.

Pretests are readministered at the end of the learning program to assess areas and degree of change. The pretests utilized in Project G.O.O.D. include the "Children's Personality Questionnaire," open-ended sen-

tences, sociometric devices, and ratings of the behavior of pupils when they are observed in an independent learning situation.

The "Children's Personality Questionnaire" (CPQ) is an objective, paper-and-pencil test which taps the pupil's own perception of his characteristic behaviors. The test was developed through use of factor analysis by the Institute for Personality and Ability Testing. There are two comparable forms to the test. Batteries measuring the same 16 personality factors are designed for younger and older age groups, covering the age range of 6 years to adulthood. Results from the CPQ are used primarily for research purposes. Open-ended sentences, such as "A teacher is . . . , A teacher should be . . . ," are used to measure existing attitudes of pupils toward teachers and to determine some idea of how a teacher functions. These attitudes are often found to interfere with a pupil's learning on his own. Results of this pretest are used as the basis for discussion during the introductory session. At this time, teachers indicate some of their reasons for wanting to teach, the kind of education they received that helped them better understand children and how children learn. The children are asked to guess how much money is spent on each of them each year to run their schools, why they think people believe schools are so important, and what an ideal school would be like. Pupils are asked to plan the ideal school and tell what characteristics pupils and teachers would show. They are helped to plan what they might do to make their own school more ideal. The ideas are also used in introducing the materials in *How Teachers and Pupils Work Together*.[12]

Answers to the open-ended sentence, "The ideal me . . . ," are used to measure pupils' goals and ideas about themselves in the future. Pupils are encouraged to write realistic descriptions of what they would like to be like when they grow up. These responses are used to help pupils see that what they are learning can be of personal importance to them in reaching their goals.

Twenty open-ended questions dealing with interests and problems that might interfere with learning are used to provide teachers with information which is important for planning learning tasks. These questions are in the booklet, *Discover My World Sequel*.

A sociometric test is given that asks the pupil to list three people with whom he would like to work, to play, and sit next to. Data are used for grouping and for seating arrangements. Indications of the social structure of the class are also used to identify possible influence leaders and pupils whose social needs may be interfering with learning. Pupils who receive few or no choices are given special help by the teacher in developing socially valued skills and in becoming more accepted by their peers. Attempts are made to break down cliques or groupings which interfere with communications and which drain off energy in coping with nonproductive social tensions. This work is directed toward establishing a learning climate in which there is free exchange of help and ideas and in which social needs are satisfied sufficiently to allow intellectual needs to become dominant in influencing behavior.

Ease of communication between the teacher and pupil is essential if the teacher and pupil are going to work together in planning and evaluating learning. The pupil can contribute to decisionmaking by assuming some responsibility for supplying data on factors that might interfere with his learning and on interests and special learning needs. Each pupil in Project G.O.O.D. is supplied with two folders called "All About Me" folders. These folders are placed in a file for the pupil's use. In one folder, the pupil may keep for the teacher any written message he believes will help the teacher better guide his learning. The pupil is assured that any information given by him will be kept confidential and will be used only to help the teacher in understanding his learning needs. In the other folder, the pupil may keep messages that are strictly private and may be seen by no one other than himself. The purpose of this folder is to encourage the pupil to write or draw about his strong emotional states and to keep

12. Booklets utilized in this program are from *A Teaching Program in Human Behavior and Mental Health*. Available from Educational Research Council of America, Cleveland, Ohio.

records of them. He can then begin to express even strong feelings. The pupil is urged to check this folder periodically to see whether he feels that the problems are still acute or are being resolved. In this way, the pupil can judge the progress he is making. If there seems to be no progress, the pupil is encouraged to think of possible sources of help and to seek help from the best source available.

In introducing these folders and explaining their use, the teacher discusses the differences between telling and tattling. Pupils are encouraged to contribute to the folder only those items of information which can be of help to the teacher. Information which might be an attempt to "get even" or to get someone else in trouble is discouraged. Pupils are asked to place a note on the teacher's desk if they have written a message which they want read right away. They are also encouraged to take the initiative in asking for a conference when they experience or anticipate experiencing a difficult problem.

Understanding Behavior

Typically when pupils are put on their own or given an opportunity to decide for themselves, certain behaviors appear which indicate they have need for greater understanding of behavior. Talking to friends rather than working on the task, putting off work until the last minute, insufficient planning, excessive concern over getting a good grade, and the like are examples of behaviors which may interfere with learning when on one's own.

Previous research on the effects of teaching children to understand more about behavior indicates that significant changes can be produced when the child is taught to take a causal approach to behavior. Perhaps the same approach can produce significant changes in the learner's ability to understand and redirect learning behavior.

The booklet *Discover My World Sequel* is used as a means of gathering some of the data needed to understand the behavior of the individual pupil. This booklet is also used as one of the initial experiences in helping children examine some of the past and present influences affecting their behavior. The booklet is kept in their "All About Me" folders.

Materials which have been developed for teaching the causal approach to behavior are included in Project G.O.O.D. Some booklets are designed to build understanding of the needs people have and of alternative ways of satisfying needs. These booklets include *Needs and Feelings, Why People Act As They Do* (Books V and VI), and *When We Meet a Problem* (Booklets I and II).

These booklets are used to consolidate ideas which have been incorporated into the basic subjects that deal with human behavior. For example, in social studies pupils are guided in understanding some of the *reasons* behind a given behavior and are helped to see the long-term *effects* of behaviors and events. The resources available to the people of a given time are compared with resources that are available now. This approach is in contrast to a description of what happened, how people lived, how governments changed, etc. Story characters in reading and literature can be considered in light of why they might act as they do, what other ways might be available to them, and what the effects might be of other ways of solving the problem. Experiences in reading can be planned to increase the pupil's vocabulary of words and phrases that describe emotions, his identification of sources of help, and his understanding of the importance of seeking help before a problem gets too big.

The booklets, *How Are Our Relationships With Rules and Authority Figures?* and *Organizing a Room Council* are used to help pupils begin to think why certain rules might help them learn better and how to help themselves and others when it is difficult to follow a rule. This is in contrast to the practice of arbitrarily applying a punishment when a rule is broken. It becomes the pupil's responsibility to try to do something about the basic *source* of problems he may face, rather than to assume that the problem has been handled when he has "paid for his crime" by taking

his punishment. The emphasis is on helping prevent the reoccurrence of the problem.

Learning About Learning

To help pupils use different approaches to learning and to learn more effectively, several experiences are planned for Project G.O.O.D., which relate directly to the learning process. *How Can We Find Out?* and several study skills booklets are used to help pupils think of several sources of information, to decide which sources might be most helpful for a given problem, to practice making distinctions between major ideas and their details, to check the validity of a resource, to organize their work, to practice different ways of reporting their work to others, etc. The story of Professor Gyro and his "robot-boy" impulse is used to study different ways of learning and some of the factors which interfere with learning. The programed booklet, *Learning on One's Own*, is used for independent study of the factors which influence learning.

Practice in using knowledge about learning is given through self-administration of pre- and post-tests for units in subjects such as math. Pupils are expected to keep samples of their work and to keep progress reports on their own learning. As often as possible the pupils, rather than the teachers, evaluate their own work. The rationale behind these practices is based on the improvement in learning which often occurs when immediate feedback is available. Pupils can provide their own feedback at a time when they are most able to profit from it. If progress is not as rapid as the teacher and pupil would like, plans are made to find the source of the problems and alleviate it.

Teachers are encouraged to specify objectives of their learning units in terms of the behaviors they would expect of a person who had reached the goals of the unit. Before starting any major learning segment the teacher tries to help pupils understand that what they are expected to learn can be of personal significance to them. This awareness of the significance of the learning is seen as a necessary ingredient of effective learning on one's own. Understanding of reasons for the work can provide more effective motivation than having someone to remind you and to reprimand you for failing to stick to the task.

Because the rapport between teacher and pupil so frequently is damaged when the teacher must fill out report cards, a unit of study has been written which deals with grades and with feedback about the pupil's learning process provided by the teacher. Role playing and other devices are used to help pupils understand some of the reasons for cheating, some of its effects, and other ways of handling the learning problems they face. Pupils are asked to predict their grades and to find out "why," if there is a discrepancy between the grade they think they should have and the grade they actually receive. Pupils then make plans to improve their learning. They are helped to understand some of the reasons for having a grading system, are given an opportunity to devise a better system, and are helped to understand some of teachers' and parents' feelings and problems associated with grades.

Practice in Taking Responsibility for Learning

Along with the study of materials to help build a background for learning on one's own, the pupil in Project G.O.O.D. works on his own with projects that gradually increase in scope and complexity. These units of study center around concepts that would be studied in the regular curriculum. The difference is that more of the planning and evaluating is done by the pupil. Topics may vary in the degree to which they cross subject matter lines. Examples of complex topics may be "Do Wars Solve Social Problems?" This topic may include several disciplines during the search for information and interpretations and in organizing and reporting the findings. Independent learning projects such as "Some Causes of British Behavior in the Revolutionary War" may be less complex. Working a programed unit in remedial or accelerated

math may require even less planning and evaluation by the pupil. The pupil, however, may decide to use the unit after he has evaluated his own learning needs.

Pupils are helped to evaluate their own learning behavior in several ways. They are first helped to clearly specify their objectives so that they can later evaluate the degree to which the objectives are reached. They are supplied with checklists to check themselves on their use of time and on areas of work which may need improving. They may contribute to the "All About Me" folders any information they believe will be helpful to the teacher in making the independent study more effective.

The Teacher's Role in Project G.O.O.D.

Previous use of the materials for teaching about behavior has indicated that the behavior of the teacher can be extremely important in establishing a climate for learning and in demonstrating by actual behavior the concepts taught in the curriculum. Learning about human behavior must include attitudinal and emotional factors, if changes in the learner's actual behavior are to take place. Emotional learning can best occur when the teacher lives the causal approach in interaction with pupils, and when pupils compare their feelings when in this type of climate with their feelings when in a non-causal climate. The teacher can also provide a causal model with which pupils begin to identify and initiate.

Giving pupils some responsibility for learning on their own and for evaluating their own learning requires a sense of trust in the basic nature of pupils. Knowledge of and respect for individual differences is needed if task and learner are to be matched on an individual basis. Ability to listen to pupils and be genuinely interested in each pupil as a person facilitates the progress of pupil growth. A clear understanding of the learning objectives will help the teacher decide when pupils are actually working on important goals, and when additional guidance may be needed. Each of these characteristics may need development through teacher training.

Use of the "All About Me" folders and the establishment of a climate in which pupils keep teachers informed about problems necessitates professional treatment of information by the teachers. The sense of trust, so vital to the use of the folders, could easily be destroyed if information were treated as gossip among teachers or in other ways mishandled. Data from pupils in Project G.O.O.D. are considered professional communications to be used only for helping the pupil learn better. The teacher is required to get the pupil's permission before disclosing information, even to a school principal or psychologist. If a problem seems too complex for the teacher and pupil to handle together, the teacher still must ask the pupil's permission before calling in a third party.

Teachers who participate in Project G.O.O.D. are given in-service training in the causal approach to behavior, factors influencing pupil behavior, diagnosing learning needs, and interpreting information from the pupil. Teachers are encouraged to examine their own attitudes toward themselves, their profession, and pupils. They assess the kinds of person-to-person communication between themselves and pupils. Approaches to discipline and the differences between "first aid" discipline procedures and steps for providing permanent aid to prevent behavior problems are studied.

The major reading in this study includes the handbook for the particular grade level from the series, *A Teaching Program in Human Behavior and Mental Health* (Ojemann 1965), and the booklet *Developing a Program for Education in Human Behavior* (Ojemann 1970). Several other articles and case studies are also used. Most teachers report that it takes them some time to experience the attitudinal change and intellectual understanding needed before the causal approach can become part of their natural behavior.

PART III: SUMMARY

The plan for Project G.O.O.D., which has been described, is suited to the intermediate

years of elementary school, grades 4-6. The same basic concepts could be incorporated in a plan for other grade levels. These concepts deal with (a) understanding behavior and applying this understanding to one's own learning behavior, (b) recognizing the role of the teacher and the importance of what is learning, and (c) increasing awareness of the learning process and of factors that help or hinder learning. The specific objectives of the program include:

Behavior: *The pupil should grow in his ability to:*

1. Identify causes for behavior, including his own learning behavior.
2. Describe several alternative effects of a given behavior and use this evaluation of effects in making decisions about his own learning behavior.
3. Take the responsibility for monitoring and changing his learning behavior when necessary.
4. Develop and try out plans for reducing the interference of other needs on his learning needs—for example, seeks to satisfy social needs in ways that enhance rather than interfere with learning.
5. Talks about problems early and takes responsibility for finding help when needed.

Learning: *The pupil should improve his ability to:*

1. Identify and use several types of resource materials and methods of learning.
2. Identify and work on skills and learning which may be inadequate for future learning.
3. Keep records of his own learning progress.
4. Describe factors which interfere with learning.
5. Identify objectives of his learning and how his learning can help him become the kind of person he wants to be.
6. Make plans to improve his learning and treat grades (if used) as a source of feedback. This feedback can be considered along with his own evaluations of his learning.
7. Plan, carry out, and evaluate learning tasks on his own.

Teacher-Pupil Interaction: *The pupil should grow in his ability to:*

1. Describe ways in which the teacher can be of help in his learning.
2. Match, in his own behavior, the causal approach which is demonstrated by the teacher.
3. Identify the teacher's interest in him as an individual and as an available source of help when he cannot work through problems for himself.
4. Describe how the teacher's training is of benefit in helping him learn.
5. Identify some of the reasons for society's (through the schools) expectations for his learning.

Read and discuss the implications to your own teaching practice of the ideas presented in the following:

1. Combs, Arthur. Fostering self-direction. *Educational Leadership.*
2. Holt, John. Learning is making sense out of things. *Grade Teacher.*
3. Bloom, Benjamin. *Handbook of Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning.*
4. Glasser, William. *Schools Without Failure.*

Self-directed Learning

Recent professional literature is filled with articles and books describing the open classroom. The model is built upon the ways in which young children naturally learn, through exploration, manipulation, and discovery. There is little *guided* learning unless children ask for it, which may be quite often. However, the *guide* may be another child as well as the teacher.

A. Read some of the following selections

and discuss the major premises of the open classroom approach.

1. Kohl, Herbert. *The Open Classroom.*
2. Weber, Lillian. *The English Infant School and Informal Education.*
3. Rogers, Vincent R. *The English Primary School.*

B. Listen to some of the tapes in the NEA Discussion Starter Tape Library, "Schools for the 70's and Beyond: A Call to Action." You may want to use these tapes for discussions within your community.

C. Identify the major differences that you see between self-directed learning and individualized instruction. Which one of these methods seems to suit best your goals for education?

D. Identify any reservations you have concerning your ability to teach in a self-directed setting. Try it and seek help in working out the discomforts you have.

Unit 13

GROUP DYNAMICS AND INTERGROUP RELATIONSHIPS

OBJECTIVES

When you finish this unit, you should be able to:

1. Identify and describe some functions of group behaviors.
2. Teach pupils the roles of different group members.
3. Distinguish between factors that enhance group behavior and factors that detract from group behavior.
4. Develop effective group activities in your own classroom.
5. Use sociometric tests and other diagnostic tools for assessing social development.
6. Describe some methods by which pupils can begin to examine their own group behavior.
7. Identify factors in the classroom that contribute to cooperation or competition.
8. Describe some of the influences of competition and cooperation on social development.
9. Describe ways of improving social integration in the classroom.
10. Set up a classroom in which social integration is enhanced by constructive behavior.

INTRODUCTION

In this program of study we have considered the teacher's behavior, the curriculum, the climate for learning, and factors which can promote the mental health of children. In this final unit the effects of group dynamics and intergroup relationships on the child and ways of helping children learn about and improve their group relationships are considered.

Natural groups for work and play are seldom as large as the typical classroom group. Therefore, the teacher seldom finds the class working together as one group. Indications are that as groups grow larger, the leadership tends to become less democratic and the amount of participation by individual members tends to decrease. Larger groups tend to deal with more impersonal content, and although there may be a greater number of ideas generated, individual productivity tends to go down. The distribution of power and participation is likely to be unequal.

Learning occurs more readily when there is active participation and the learner has an opportunity to explore his own meaning in relation to that of others. Thus, most types of study could profit from small group interaction rather than from work in large groups or in isolation. Concepts will be more interesting to the child if he selects an idea from his own private world and frames it in such a way that it can be understood by others. It is through interaction with others that most attitudes are developed and values integrated into action.

If you are able to innovate to the point of Individualizing instruction or can even go to the point of encouraging self-directed learning, the establishment of small learning groups should be a natural outgrowth of the activities. You may be able to rely on their developing spontaneously. Your concern will then be one of helping the groups function more effectively. Your work with group dynamics can be to modify those patterns which you believe to be harmful and to help children improve the group skills they now have.

If you are not ready to change the basic classroom structure completely, you may begin whenever you feel comfortable. Limit large group instruction to demonstrations, direction-giving, and matters that are of concern to the whole group. Perhaps, you can take one subject area or *one* class (if your classes are departmentalized) and break up the class into small work groups for a short period of time. The behavior of the group, both helpful and nonconstructive, can then be discussed with emphasis on how to improve the group work, rather than on who did what.

The characteristics of effective leaders, responsibilities of group members and effects of group size, can be important content for study. The ability to work together in a group is learned and requires work similar to that required with any other kind of concept, attitude, and skill.

This unit is to help you identify ways to teach children to accept and prize other people as unique individuals, who are nevertheless like themselves in basic motivations but different in the resources they have built. The study of intergroup relationships can help children break down some of the stereotypes which exist and can build a sense of identity with people from backgrounds different from their own.

STRATEGIES

Group Processes

It is one thing to read about and discuss what can be done with small groups in the classroom, but quite another to actually experience the difference between small and large group instruction. Throughout this program the writer has made suggestions for small group activities and has suggested that you "read and discuss" certain materials. You have experienced various types of discussions: total vs. small groups, groups with an agenda or discussion questions vs. nonlimited or nondirective. Now discuss the feelings you had when participating in each type of discussion.

A. Read and discuss the exercises recommended by Gorman, Alfred, in *Teachers and Learners: The Interactive Process in Education*. The following activities are based on his suggestions:

   1. *Fishbowl*. Write out a description of a behavior of one of your pupils which you would like to modify. Indicate in specific terms what kind of behavior you would like to see instead.

      Select a group of five to seven for the center group and match each person with a partner in an outer group. Select one of the behavior descriptions for the center group to discuss in terms of possible causes, effects, and ways of modifying the behavior. The person in the outside group is to observe the contributions of his counterpart and to help him contribute more effectively to the group. The observer may wish to use the descriptions of the functions in a group (Gorman, pp. 58–62). The game from Creative Learning System, *Feedback*, can be especially useful for this.

   2. *Group size*. Identify the six most important characteristics of a teacher, (5 minutes). Find a partner and reach consensus on one list of six characteristics, (5 minutes). Find another pair and reach consensus in 10 minutes (group of 4). Combine with another group of four to form a group of eight and reach consensus in 10 minutes. Discuss the processes of decisionmaking which were different for groups of different sizes.

   3. Fill out the Agree-Disagree Exercise on page 101 of Gorman's book. This exercise should give you an indication of where you stand on the use of small groups.

B. Read and discuss the ideas developed in Wilson, John; Robeck, Mildred; and

Michael, William, *Psychological Foundation of Learning and Teaching*, Chapter 20, "Teachers as Counselors."

C. Torrance, E. Paul, describes at length some group resources and responses to stress in *Mental Health and Constructive Behavior*, Part III, "How Groups Cope with Stress." Evaluate the resources your classroom groups show.

D. Use the sociometric technique to find leaders, isolates, and interpersonal links among your classroom groups. Work to improve the position of isolates and form more cohesive, satisfying groups. Reference: Glanz, Edward C., *Groups in Guidance*.

E. Develop a talk circle as described by Glasser, William, *Schools Without Failure*.

F. Moffett, James A., in *A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum, Grades K-12*, describes a method for teaching language arts based on the small group approach. Design an approach for another subject area so that interaction with other learners is a vital part of the learning process.

Intergroup Relationships

The topic of group dynamics and intergroup relationship is an especially important one for children today. Much of their lives will be spent in groups, and they will be in many situations which require skill and understanding in relating to people from a variety of nationalities, religions, racial and ethnic backgrounds, etc. When you consider the degree of change that has occurred in your lifetime in communications and transportation, you can get some idea of the variety of interpersonal contacts your students are likely to have.

A. The following selections are but a sample of the writings which give suggestions for group building activities. Perhaps you can add some others to the list.

1. Borton, Terry. *Reach, Touch and Teach.*
2. Epstein, Charlotte. *Intergroup Relations for the Classroom Teacher.*
3. Raths, Louis E.; Harmin, Merrill; and Simon, Sidney B. *Values and Teaching.*
4. Frymier, Jack. *The Nature of Educational Method.* Chapter 6, Structure.
5. Harris, Thomas A. *I'm OK—You're OK.*

B. Identify an activity described in the readings above and implement the activity with a group of students. Tape record the activities if possible and play them back to a small group of your peers. Discuss how you might improve the activity and your implementation.

ASSESSMENT POINT—PART 3

In this course of study, several major concepts and attitudes have been examined with the intent of changing the teacher's behavior toward children. This change may be reflected in reinforced patterns of old behavior, for those teachers who were already behaving in ways that seem to support the child's social and emotional growth. For other teachers the changes produced may be very different from previous behaviors. Since each individual started at varied points when this study began, it is assumed that the amount and types of change this study has produced will also vary.

If you are working in a setting which requires academic grading to indicate the student's progress in the course, you may consider the self-evaluation technique described in the initial section. Preferred is the use of evaluations in which each person diagnoses his present strength and weaknesses and then discusses in a small group his plans for implementing and continuing the growth he has shown in this course of study.

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